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## ABSTRACT

Along with a brief history of American junior colleges and the principles on which they were established and currently operate, this paper discusses their main problems: (1) sources of funds (state aid, local taxes, tuition, fees) and the proportionate amounts received from each; (2) the expected diversity of courses to satisfy remedial, academic, vocational, technical, community, and transfer needs; and (3) control, whether local or state. The trend is to state control because of funding, the efficiencies of central planning and coordination, and the mobile population. Listed are the advantages and drawbacks of four levels of control: a public school district, an independent district, a college or university branch, and the state level. Descriptions and a few statistics are given for typical students' background, academic ability, employment, occupational choice, motivation, attitudes, and age range. Included also is a brief description of the seven principles developed by AAJC for the legal establishment of junior colleges. The author then details the establishment and status of the 2-year college in New Mexico--its organization, boundaries, affiliations, course of study, taxation, bonds, and governance. The last chapter deals with program specifications for a possible college in Albuquerque. The essential program areas are academic affairs, occupational training (following national and regional manpower needs), general and continuing education, community services, and student personnel. (HF)

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THE  
COMMUNITY-JUNIOR  
COLLEGE

*Prepared for*

THE FUTURE SCHOOLS STUDY PROJECT  
ALBUQUERQUE PUBLIC SCHOOLS  
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## FOREWORD

This report is the result of several months of research and study which began in the fall of 1968. The purpose of the report is to provide a common basis of information on the community-junior college to a number of people who are interested in and working toward the eventual establishment of a community-junior college in Albuquerque.

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B. R.

## THE COMMUNITY-JUNIOR COLLEGE: AN OVERVIEW

The community-junior college perhaps is best described by Clyde Blocker as a "comprehensive public two-year college which offers post-high school education programs to meet the needs of the community." [2:23] The programs generally offered in community-junior colleges are in the areas of academic affairs (courses equivalent to those offered the first two years in a four-year college or university), occupational training (vocational and technical), adult continuing education, general education, community services, and student personnel services. The emphasis in program planning in all these areas is on meeting the educational, vocational, cultural, psychological, and aesthetic needs of *all* community members.

The concept and the reality of this kind of comprehensive community-junior college started to emerge fully around 1945. Prior to that time the two-year public college existed but in a form different from the community-junior college as described above.

Understanding the development of the community-junior college does not entail delving far into American educational history, for the growth of the public two-year college is fundamentally a twentieth century phenomenon. Although private two-year colleges were established as early as 1835, the public two-year college did not come into being until the 1900's. Disagreement exists over which program and/or educational institution is considered the first public two-year college, but it is agreed that the first public two-year college established, which has continuously existed in that form to date, was at Joliet, Illinois in 1902. [48:4]

The idea of the public two-year junior college came into being prior to 1902, however. In the late 1800's, a number of university presidents advocated the "bifurcated university" in which the actual university would start with the junior year and specialized courses. The freshman and sophomore years would be attached to the secondary schools. In 1890, William Rainey Harper, President of the University of Chicago, divided the University administratively into two divisions. He coined the term "junior college" which described the lower division. [38:11] The two-year upper division university was not met with wide acclaim, but the idea of lower-division offerings began to be implemented on a limited scale in a number of states. [38:11]

From 1900 to 1920 two-year colleges were established around the country in four different patterns. [48:4-6] An upward extension of high school and academy programs into the 13th and 14th years developed, particularly in the Midwest and California. In the South and Southeast many church-related institutions transformed from four-year institutions into two-year ones. In other areas of the country agricultural high schools were created to provide educational opportunities for people living in small towns and rural areas. The fourth pattern of development, the public junior colleges created by individuals or groups motivated by philanthropic desires, took place in various parts of the country. Of these latter two-year colleges, with



an emphasis on college-transfer courses, a substantial number did not survive and many others developed into four-year institutions. [2:25] The idea, however, of the public junior college continued to grow, and subsequent colleges were established.

From 1920 to 1940 the curriculum offerings of the two-year colleges expanded from the limited academic affairs (college transfer) program to include also adult education and vocational and technical training. And the two-year college, particularly the public junior college, expanded rapidly.

There were several reasons for this development. First, the twelve-year public school system started to become stabilized in the various states; in response, colleges and universities began to use the high school diploma as an entrance requirement. This move, of course, automatically eliminated a large number of persons from post-high school education; they turned to the junior college.

Second, the junior college began to "prove its worth." It was successfully able to duplicate the course work of the two lower divisions of the colleges and universities. It seemed an answer to enrollment pressures and the desires of colleges and universities to concentrate on upper division work.

Another reason for the extensive development of the junior college was the increased need for occupational training. Because of the rapid technological changes in society and urban growth, a vast number of new job positions were created. Training of persons to fulfill these new positions was not undertaken by established educational institutions; the developing junior college, however, possessed both the flexibility and desire to create the needed training programs.

A final factor which contributed to the rapid growth of the junior college was the increasing acceptance of the belief that universal educational opportunities extended to the college level. And, by the 1950's, hordes of students were demanding college education. From 1870 to 1950, the population of the United States increased about four times (from 38,558,371 to 150,697,361); during the same period the enrollment in higher education increased over forty times, from just over 52 thousand to 2,659,021 in 1950. [15:17] The four-year institutions were and are ill equipped to handle the massive number of students. The junior college seemed a logical answer.

About 1945 the comprehensive community-junior college, as opposed to the junior college, came into being. The change was due fundamentally to the democratic belief that every individual should have the opportunity to be educated to the level of his highest potential and desire—this meant, at least, to a level which would enable him to function effectively economically in this society.

For an individual to function effectively in the economic realm in the American society as well as to escape the description "uneducated," the level of education he must possess "rises as the technological procedures of the society become more complex." [2:2] In the early 1900's an eighth grade education was all one needed; then a high school diploma became

essential; and now, college level work, if not graduation, is necessary. The GI bill of 1944 (extending educational opportunities to returning servicemen) and the National Defense Education Act of 1958 (extending educational benefits to a larger group of citizens) are examples of governmental acknowledgement of post-high school educational needs and governmental belief in this level of education for all citizens.

In addition to the acceptance of educational opportunities to aid persons economically, the belief became prominent that post-high school education should be available to persons for intellectual, psychological, and aesthetic reasons. This belief embodies the ideas that one must be educated to live intelligently in a complex society; one must be educated to participate in the process of moulding a world; one must be educated to enjoy his leisure time.

To be educated meant the difference between "living" and simply "existing." The community-junior college, besides offering basic educational programs to a large number of persons who would be unable to obtain them otherwise, also developed a wide offering of programs to meet economic, intellectual, psychological and aesthetic needs. Therefore, the total program of a community-junior college obviously is built in and around the people, needs and resources of a whole community. [15:62]

The actual and anticipated growth of the two-year college is exemplified by statistics. In 1967 there were over 900 public and private two-year colleges in the United States, about 650 were two-year public junior colleges. [1:6-7] Every state had at least one two-year college; all states were planning more. (See Appendix I for chart showing number of two-year colleges by state.) The growth rate of the public two-year college is phenomenal: one new college opens each week. [14:22] It is anticipated that by 1975-76, there will be over 1,000 public two-year colleges. [18:7]

It has been predicted that there will be six to eight million college students by 1970. [4:9] A conservative estimate is that about two and one-half million students will be in two-year colleges. [1:7] (See Appendix II for growth rates, over a six-year period, of two-year colleges.)

The present-day two-year public community-junior college is uniquely different from the four-year colleges and universities; in general, the community-junior college "has been organized to provide flexible educational programs which recognize the limitations and needs of students rather than to seek students who fit the requirements of traditional curricula." [2:10] The uniqueness of the community-junior college perhaps is better described in terms of its major characteristics (taken from *The Community College Movement* by Ralph R. Fields) which are listed below and then discussed in detail: [15:63-95]

- |                    |   |
|--------------------|---|
| 1) Democratic--    | open-door admission policy,<br>geographically accessible,<br>low/no tuition and minimal fees. |
| 2) Comprehensive-- | wide range of students with widely<br>varying abilities, needs, interests,                    |

- curriculum designed to meet broad needs of such students.
- 3) Community-centered— service to community, utilization of community resources, generally, locally supported and controlled.
- 4) Lifelong education— program to individuals of all ages and all educational needs.
- 5) Adaptable— to changing purposes, to individual differences, to community differences.

1) *Democratic*. "Access" has been one term used to describe the keystone to the development of America—access to economic opportunity, to social and geographical mobility, to political participation, and, perhaps most importantly, to educational opportunity. [40:16] Were it not for the development of the community-junior colleges, however, access to educational opportunity would no longer be descriptive of the American society. For it is only through the general open-door policy of the community-junior college that a post-high school educational opportunity is available to many people in the United States. Thousands of persons are unable to enter a four-year college or university because they do not have a high school diploma, because their high school record is poor (they may be "late bloomers"), or because it has been decided by various people that their intellectual abilities are not of the caliber needed for the rigorous academic program of the four-year institutions. To these people, the community-junior college offers the opportunity for higher education that they want and which has been promised. The community-junior college does not insist on penance for failure, whatever the reason, to obtain a high school diploma, for previous academic failure, or for abilities possessed other than the academic ones demanded by four-year colleges. The community-junior college attempts to provide the educational opportunity to develop all human talent.

The phrase "open-door policy," however, does not mean that *anyone* will be accepted for admission and allowed to participate in any educational program for an *unlimited* time, *regardless* of his performance. "Open-door" refers to entrance to the institution but not necessarily to the curricula. Most community-junior colleges do have probation periods and performance standards; policies vary widely. (It is suggested by Blocker that community-junior colleges have selective admission for some programs, such as occupational and transfer, and that other programs should be on an unrestricted basis.) [2:209-213]

In addition to the open-door policy, community-junior colleges make educational opportunities geographically accessible to a great number of people who otherwise would be unable to obtain post-high school education. Such people may lack the money for college and living expenses; they may prefer simply to stay in their home community, or they may want or



need to continue their immediate employment. To these types of people the community-junior college offers additional educational opportunities.

In recent years, many commitments have been made to the belief that community-junior colleges should be geographically accessible to all people. The President's Commission on National Goals, in 1960, said that two-year colleges should be established within commuting distance of all high school graduates, with certain exceptions. [27:4] In 1964 the Educational Policies Commission (a commission of the National Education Association of the United States and American Association of School Administrators) in its statement entitled "Universal Opportunity for Education Beyond the High School" notes that "each state must assure that the opportunity for at least two years of college education is reasonably accessible to all high school graduates wherever they may live in the state," [12:20] and that "nonselective colleges should exist in every population center." [12:25] There are seven states (California, Florida, Illinois, New York, New Jersey, Michigan, and Pennsylvania) with 41% of the population (80 million people) that are attempting to place community-junior colleges within commuting distance of over 90% of their population. [14:22]

Community-junior colleges, in addition to making higher education possible for many people because of geographical accessibility and the open-door policy, also make educational opportunities available to more people because of low tuition costs and fees. It is well known that "American higher education has been and continues to be the province of white, middle class people who could afford to allow their sons and daughters to devote four-six years to education and self-improvement." [7:22] This privilege, through community-junior colleges, is now available to other people.

A clear relationship exists between family income and college attendance. In 1960, 78% of high school graduates from families earning \$12,000 or more yearly income went to college; 33% of high school graduates from families with less than \$3,000 yearly income went to college. [23:9] The community-junior college democratizes this difference by its general policy of low tuition and costs. Educational expenses are also lessened, of course, by students living in the same community where the college is located or within commuting distance. It is the general policy of community-junior colleges that no one will be denied the opportunity for post-high school education because of a lack of financial income.

2) *Comprehensive*. Primarily because of the open-door policy of community-junior colleges, but also, of course, because of the other democratizing influences, the students attending the community-junior colleges cover a tremendous range of ages, abilities, needs, and interests.

To show the comprehensiveness of the student body, community-junior college students range in age from below 20 to 80 and 90, 50% are below twenty, 16% above thirty. [4:9] About one-fourth of the students are married, and over half of them work at least part time. [2:108] The students come from a broad range of socioeconomical backgrounds; some are

physically handicapped, and others are rehabilitation students; many are in need of remedial work in the basic skills.

People enroll in community-junior colleges for a wide variety of reasons, but in general, they seek educational opportunities that were not and are not available to them in secondary education or four-year institutions of higher education.

Because of the variety of abilities and desires of the potential and actual community-junior college students, and because of the desire to attract these students, the programs offered by community-junior colleges are of a broad, diversified, comprehensive nature. Behind the community-junior college's philosophy for existence is the belief that, as Arthur Goldberg says, "everyone is *capable* of being educated . . . it is the duty of society to build an educational system which fits the abilities and fulfills the needs of each particular individual." [23:7]

To meet the abilities and needs of particular students, most community-junior college programs are designed to cover six broad areas. In different communities, of course, the emphasis in areas will vary, and specialized, single-purpose public two-year colleges do exist. (There are a large number of agricultural and mechanical institutes in New York as well as the Fashion Institute of Technology in New York. A number of business colleges, qualified as two-year public colleges, exist also. [15:23]) In general, however, most community-junior college programs cover the six areas of occupational education, academic affairs, general education, community services, continuing education, and guidance and personal counseling services.

*Occupational Education.* Although the initial emphasis on curriculum in community-junior colleges was on the two years of lower division collegiate work, the needs of the community-junior college clientele seem to be shifting to the occupational realm, and community-junior colleges are responding accordingly. (The term "occupational training" refers to both vocational and technical training.) An increasingly large group of semi-professional positions are becoming more in demand in the American labor market, and the need for trained people to fill these positions is great.

The literature on labor estimates abounds with statistics showing the need in the American society for technicians, and there is not an adequate quantity of them. In 1910 white collar jobs constituted 20% of jobs in America; in 1970 they will constitute 50%. [2:50] In 1960, 775,000 technicians were being used; the National Science Foundation has estimated that by 1970 all industry will require more than 1.3 million technicians. [23:7] Thus, while automation is ending the unskilled worker jobs (200,000 individuals displaced by automation each year since 1960 [2:5]), a higher proportion of skilled and professional people are needed. Estimates available on the technician-to-professional role vary from 2-1 to 6-1; obviously training for technicians must take place. Other educational institutions do not begin to train the quantity of people needed; the community-junior college is the answer.

Nationally, the need for trained persons is great in other occupational

areas also: business (secretaries, machine accounting, business data programming, business management, sales, purchasing, advertising, credit and collections, store management, inventory control); health technology (registered and practical nurses, medical, X-ray and electrocardiogram technicians, medical research supporters, dental technicians, histological technicians); public service (law enforcement, fire protection, conservation, social work and teaching); and service industries (restaurant and hotel management, television, auto and appliance repair). [13:53-54]

Most community-junior colleges, of course, cannot provide training programs for all the above mentioned positions. The number and type of programs for individual colleges is determined, generally, by local need and capability.

While it is true that the cost per student in an occupational program is higher than the cost per student in an academic program (\$800-\$1600 to \$500-\$750) [13:44], most communities want extensive occupational programs in the community-junior college for two reasons: [13:65]

- 1) Persons graduating from occupational programs (one to two years of training) generally stay in the local community and start producing wealth.
- 2) A liberal arts program serves about one-third of the students. It prepares them to leave town.

Generally, then, while serving the youth and adults in the community, the occupational program of the community-junior college also serves businesses and industries in the community. To meet the needs of the student—both economical and psychological—and the needs of businesses and industries, many community-junior colleges, prior to offering any particular occupational program, obtain, guarantees of job positions with local businesses for their graduates.

States concerned with providing incentives for further development of industry and business should consider carefully the establishment of community-junior colleges. Developing industries look for potential and trained manpower; a flexible community-junior college, with the ability and the will to provide accommodating programs, is noticed by leaders in industry and business.

*Academic Affairs.* The community-junior college program which seems to be most popular among the younger students is the academic affairs program. This program offers the traditional two years of lower division collegiate work which enables students to progress smoothly into upper division work at four-year colleges and universities. Studies show that the majority of students (2/3-3/4) think and plan initially in terms of the academic affairs program, though only about 1/3 actually transfer to four-year colleges and universities. [2:121; 27:9] Students seek entry into this program because of the prestige attached to it as well as their honest intention to seek baccalaureate degrees from colleges and universities which have limited sharply the number of students accepted in the lower division courses.



The academic affairs program will continue to increase in importance in the coming years for two reasons. The first is that colleges and universities increasingly will be unable to handle the number of students demanding higher education, and many of these students will have to go to community-junior colleges.

The second reason for the increasing importance of the academic affairs program of the community-junior college is that a trend seems to be starting that will place total responsibility for the two years of lower division collegiate work on the two-year public college. A state university in Florida, Florida Atlantic at Boca Raton, which first opened its doors in 1964, offers *only* upper division, graduate and professional programs. Funds are available for a second state university with a similar program to open in Pensacola. [27:9] This seems a logical move for state universities to make, and the trend may continue.

*General Education.* In essence, general education is education for living rather than education for making a living; its purposes are immediate, non-technical, nonvocational. [48:30] Though the basic course offerings may be similar to the academic affairs program (English, math, social and natural sciences), a distinction will exist in the curriculum development and teaching, for a "significant amount of instruction is aimed at enhancing the social, economic, civic and personal living competencies" of persons enrolled in that program. [9:23]

*Community Services.* The community services program includes a wide variety of courses and activities determined by identified local needs. These services tend to be of an avocational and cultural nature, although almost any program desired by a legitimate number of community members seems possible. Courses may be offered in drama, music, and art; workshops, short courses, institutes or forums may be conducted on health services, safety-education, public affairs, and recreational activities; and special education courses of various types may be offered. Under this program also efforts may be made to aid the lower socioeconomic members of the community by specific course offerings (health, child care, homemaking, legal rights and civil liberties) and by special attempts to bring into the educational realm youth and adults from slum and ghetto areas, in an effort to help break the poverty cycle.

*Continuing Education.* Community-junior colleges offer programs directed to the vocational and avocational aspirations of those young people and adults who usually attend evening classes. Many two-year colleges have more than half of their students enrolled in this type of program.

In accord with other programs the continuing education courses are usually of a variety due to the widely diversified motivations of persons attending evening classes. Individuals seek an associate degree from the community-junior college, retraining in vocational areas, practical information for more intelligent living, hobby skills, or social contacts. These people are unable to attend day classes primarily because of job commitments. Their chance for continuing education lies with the community-junior college.

*Student Personnel Services.* The primary democratizing factor of the community-junior college, the open-door policy, is difficult to defend unless a comprehensive program is offered to meet the needs of the students, and, most important, unless an extensive guidance and counseling program is developed by the college and utilized by the students. Students need assistance in making decisions concerning their academic work and future careers; they need assistance in self-appraisal to understand and accept a training program suited to their needs, abilities and interests.

The argument is made that guidance is more important in the community college than other institutions of higher education. This is "substantiated by the heterogeneity of the student body, the variety and complexity of decisions which students must make, and the need for non-academic services which support and give purpose to the efforts of students." [2:239]

The guidance service of the community-junior college, only one part of the total student personnel program, is admittedly the most important student personnel service. There are other necessary services of the student personnel program, however. They include the following: orientation functions (precollege information, student induction, group orientation, career information); appraisal functions (personnel records, educational testing and applicant appraisal); consultant functions (student counseling and applicant consulting); participation functions (co-curricular activities and student self-government); regulation functions (student registration, academic and social regulation); service functions (financial aids, placement and follow-up, developmental); and organizational functions (program articulation, in-service education, research and program evaluation, administrative organization). [4:13-15]

3) *Community-Centered.* In essence, the community-junior college is of the community, not just in the community. The justification for the existence of this kind of college is that it meets all the educational needs of a community—intellectual, economical, aesthetical, recreational, cultural, etc. To meet these needs, of necessity, demands a total involvement of the community and college with each other. (The campus facilities, then, cannot be located on a beautifully isolated campus out of town.)

Two ways to achieve this involvement is for the college to use the community resources extensively and, in turn, to provide a variety of services to the community.

Any community has a number of resources of value to the community-junior college. Advisory committees, made up of community members, business and industrial leaders, are usually formed to help the community-junior college plan course offerings. In many cases persons employed in industry and business are most qualified to teach some courses offered at the college and do so. Often the community-junior college is housed in buildings designed originally for other purposes (public schools and vacant department stores). The community can serve as a valuable laboratory for



occupational, social and civic studies. Courts, recreational facilities, museums, and theaters make good laboratories also.

The college serves the community in such ways as educating youth, assuring availability of workers with specific competencies, making its resources available (faculty, buildings), providing potential manpower for community activities, and offering help to the community through research and experimentation efforts.

4) *Lifelong Education*. This characteristic of the community-junior college is self-explanatory. It means simply that the college has a commitment to provide programs to individuals of all ages and of all educational needs.

5) *Adaptable*. The community-junior college is in a unique situation. Because of its newness upon the American educational scene, it is not yet encumbered by tradition and bureaucracy. It is in a position to plan its program with built-in provisions for change; provisions to allow the community-junior college to develop in response to current needs and thinking, to the ever-changing demands of the American society. These colleges must be able to add and drop occupational courses as automation extends itself or as new businesses and industries enter a community; to provide courses or forums on topics of interest and concern to the community, be they on urban renewal, black power, or the grape boycott; to be sensitive to unspoken needs and desires of the less vocal elements in the community; or to relinquish all programs to other educational institutions and community groups if it becomes apparent that that action would be a greater service to the community.

Adaptability, community-centeredness, comprehensiveness, lifelong education and democratic—these five characteristics describe the community-junior college as it exists today. There is no assurance, of course, that it will continue to survive in this form, for the needs and demands of society continue to change, and the community-junior college must change accordingly.

There is ample evidence, however, that the community-junior college, in its present form, has been accepted, is generally successful, and will continue to develop as it has been. From its phenomenal rate of growth and rapidly increasing number of students, the community-junior college has shown it is filling a gap in the American educational system.

The importance of the community-junior college and the belief in its tremendous potential is being demonstrated in a number of other ways besides growth in physical plants and numbers of students:

1) Trends are apparent in the legal control of two-year public colleges. Recent legislation in many states deals with the problems of control, administration and finance and shows that the community-junior college is beginning to be accepted as a state responsibility and as an essential part of the total public educational system. There is a trend toward statewide study and planning; surveys of total state educational needs are becoming essential to planning. [2:99-100]

2) As much literature exists about the facilities of community-junior colleges and where to locate them as any other aspect of the community-junior college. The importance of the physical plant is shown by the fact that the College of Education at Stanford University now has a program (Community College Planning Center) devoted exclusively to these two vital areas of community-junior college planning—buildings and sites. Consultant help, as well as published material, is available to interested communities. [7:passim; 8:passim]

3) The United States government has now formally and legally recognized the community-junior college potential for providing needed employees. Civil service exams, in the past, have been geared either below or above the community-junior college graduate level. Now a Junior Federal Assistant Examination has been created which is directed to the community-junior college graduate and persons with equivalent combinations of experience and education—a GS-4 on the government salary classification scale. [36:6] Persons passing this exam would qualify for such positions as computer technician, tax examiner, statistical assistant, accounting technician, and library technician.

In speaking of this development John W. Macy, Jr., Chairman of the U.S. Civil Service Commission, said that "this nationwide announcement amounts to a new recognition by the federal government that the junior colleges are turning out trained personnel of great potential value to the nation's largest (and one of its best) employers." [36:7]

4) The federal government has recognized the two-year college in another way also—financially. In 1963 the Higher Education Facilities Act was passed. Title I of the Act provided grants for construction of undergraduate academic facilities. The legislation specified that 22% of the funds be allotted for use for public community-junior colleges and technical institutions. This percentage was raised to 23% in 1968 and 24% in 1969. [21:17]

5) The National Institute of Mental Health gave a \$307,000 grant to the Southern Regional Education Board, Atlanta, Georgia, to support a five-year project in the training of mental health workers ("middle-level" personnel) at the community-junior college level. [44:52]

6) The Carnegie Corporation gave a \$100,000 grant for 1968 and 1969 to the American Association of Junior Colleges for a program of planning and service in the development of community-junior college faculty personnel. [20:7]

7) The Kettering Foundation has funded a "League for Experimentation in Community-Junior Colleges." The twelve colleges in this League promote, encourage, and evaluate innovation and experimentation to improve administration, instruction, and other aspects of the community-junior college program. [43:50]

8) Since the early 1960's an increasing number of articles and books have appeared on the relationship of the community-junior college to the large urban community, to the "inner city." Many writers speculate about the useful role the community-junior college can play in urban renewal efforts, primarily by educating citizens and/or providing programs to train persons to fill such positions as assistant city planner or urban renewal planner.

Many proponents of this movement, however, see a much more dramatic role for the community-junior college. (The American Association of Junior Colleges, for example, is strongly for this dramatic role for the community-junior college.) A fundamental belief by these people seems to be that within the inner city "lies the future strength or weakness of American civilization." [56:2]

Harold Gore, President, Educational Facilities Laboratories, Inc., says that "education, and particularly the community college, may be the best hope of the inner city. The battleground is in the city. . . . The community college may be the only acceptable agency for saving the central city." [56:2]

The Community College Planning Center, Stanford University, believes that "the community college might become one of the devices by which integrity could be restored to the city . . . (a community college) might bring the disparate elements of urban living into a healthy and creative harmony." [7:24]

The proponents for the involvement of the community-junior college in the inner city argue that the community-junior colleges must be located in the heart of the inner city, with branches in the trade, industrial, and residential areas. They must not be walled, isolated fortresses. Their concern is for "people renewal so these people can function in a changed and revitalized society." [8:5]

The challenge evident in this relationship between the community-junior college and the inner city is an intriguing and complex one. It is also most indicative of the convictions of community-junior college proponents about the potential role of the two-year public college in society and also the acceptance by a knowledgeable group of persons that the community-junior college is the one instrument capable of filling the vacuum left by existing educational institutions.

The community-junior college, with its democratic characteristics, its comprehensive programs, and its commitment to fulfill the needs of its community is the most reasonable answer to both the vocal and silent elements of American society who have that promised American right to freedom and a decent life for which education has become a prerequisite.

## PROBLEMS OF THE COMMUNITY-JUNIOR COLLEGE

The community-junior college, like any other educational institution, is not without its problems. Some of the more prominent ones are in the areas of finance, faculty, program, and control. These problems are described briefly in the following pages.

### *Finances*

Community-junior colleges receive funds from four major sources: state aid through legislative appropriations, loans, student tuition and fees, and local taxes. (A small number of the colleges receive funds from gifts, grants and investments; however, these sources are generally limited to private two-year institutions.) The four sources of funds are available for both operating expenses and capital outlay, but certain patterns of use have been established.

Funds for operating expenses generally come from three of the sources: state aid, local taxes, and tuition and fees. The first of these, state aid, is determined most often by a formula or given as a grant; the formula system being used by most states. [2:91] The problem with this system is that the funds are generally allocated on the basis of formulas similar to those used for public schools. This implies, erroneously of course, that the cost of community-junior college education is equivalent to that of elementary and secondary education. Because community-junior colleges provide academic program courses comparable to lower division courses at a four-year college and because equipment necessary for an adequate occupational program is expensive, financing must be on a level with higher educational institutions.

In some instances, state aid covers 100% of the operating costs of a community-junior college, while in other states, there may be no state aid to help with the operating costs. Generally, however, state aid is available to pay some portion of the operating costs. But it is the university branch college and the state two-year college that receive the highest percentage of support from state sources. [2:91]

In addition to state aid, financial support for operating expenses is provided through local funds. These funds are appropriated by county government or school districts or come from tax levies authorized by local election or state law. Most community-junior colleges use the local tax levy. [2:93]

Student tuition and fees provide the third, and most minor, source of funds used for operating expenses. Most community-junior colleges have both a fee structure and a small tuition charge. In eight states, however, from one to all community-junior colleges charge no tuition: California, Colorado, Illinois, Kansas, Mississippi, Missouri, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin. [48:89]

Local and district community-junior colleges generally assess tuition on the basis of residence. One tuition rate will be charged to students living in the district; another rate charged to those living outside the district but inside the state; and a third rate charged to persons living outside the state.



The rationale behind this tuition rate differentiation, of course, is that since local taxes are collected in the district to support the college, then students residing in the district are already paying some for their education, either directly or indirectly.

The choice of whether or not to charge a tuition, and, if so, how much, is always a difficult decision for administrators of community-junior colleges to make. It can be argued, of course, that if the admission policy of a community-junior college is based upon the open-door philosophy, then there must be no tuition, for even a low tuition will prohibit some persons from attending.

The serious problem concerning tuition, if it is once charged, is expressed well by Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr., President of the American Association of Junior Colleges:

Once the principle of tuition is established, no matter how small the amount at the outset, almost inexorable pressures will result in gradual but continuous increase. It may be that the degree of opportunity is reduced proportionate to the increase in fees.  
[22:20]

While student tuition and fees, local tax support, and state aid provide the funds necessary for operating expenses of the community-junior college, state aid and money borrowed through the sale of bonds generally provide the funds for capital outlay. Most states either supply all funds for campus construction or none at all; however, patterns vary according to the type of two-year college. One recent study showed that in twenty-three states, 100% of the capital outlay funds needed was supplied by the state; however, only one of these twenty-three states supplied such funds to a locally controlled community-junior college. The other twenty-two states supplied funds only to state junior colleges, technical institutions, and branch colleges. [2:93]

In general, states that provide financial support to community-junior colleges do not provide for capital outlay, but only for current operating expenses: [48:87]

Support of capital expenditures is not as firmly established a state responsibility as is aid to current operations, in spite of the fact that physical facilities are essential to the proper and effective functioning of the colleges. The history of two-year colleges appears to have given rise to the assumption that they can function effectively in physical facilities which include high school and elementary school buildings and similar structures formerly used for other purposes. This assumption is, of course, erroneous. [2:93]

The assumption is erroneous, but it certainly is made. A study in 1960 showed that two-year colleges had \$1817 in physical facilities for each student, public four-year institutions had \$4815, and private two-year colleges had \$4507. [2:94] This is not conducive to quality development of the community-junior college.

The sale of bonds to provide capital outlay financing is common to all



types of community-junior colleges. Self-liquidating bonds, underwritten by the federal government, are also used in constructing revenue-producing buildings, such as dormitories, dining halls, and student unions. [48:88]

Financial patterns do vary greatly from state to state; four patterns are shown below: [6:15]

<u>State</u>	<u>Operating Expenses</u>	<u>Capital Outlay</u>
California	State—22.4% Local—77.6%	Local—100%
New York	State—33.3% Local—33.3% Tuition—33.3%	State—50% Local—50%
Florida	State—66.3% Local—13.6% Tuition—20.1%	State—100%
Illinois	State—45% Local—45% Tuition—10%	Local—100%

#### *Faculty*

The faculty member of a community-junior college is in an unprecedented situation and, as a result, some of his problems are rather unique ones. This unprecedented situation is due largely to the open-door policy. Other institutions of higher learning have an effective screening control over students admitted; in general, the community-junior college has none. As a result, any instructor, in any classroom, is likely to find students with vast differences in ages, interests, and abilities. The degree to which this is so is significantly greater at the community-junior college level than other levels of education.

The challenges inherent in this kind of situation are evident to educators. Demands exist for "innovative solutions and superior instruction." [16:16] It is essential also that education in the community-junior college, unlike universities generally, be "student-centered rather than subject-centered." [16:15]

This need for student-centered education evidently is accepted by community-junior college faculty. In 1966 Roger Garrison, under the sponsorship of the American Association of Junior Colleges and financed with a grant by United States Steel Foundation, Inc., made a comprehensive study of community-junior college faculty concerns. The study involved a sampling of representative faculty opinion in varied two-year colleges around the country; he spent one to two weeks on each of twenty campuses. Mr. Garrison learned that both administrators, in their hiring policies, and instructors, in their teaching philosophy, were primarily concerned with "getting it across" to students. [16:15]

Although a depth knowledge of subject matter is needed (a master's degree is preferred and often required), instructional competence is of prime importance. As a result, little emphasis is placed on research and publication

in the community-junior college. This is exemplified by a study made in the summer of 1966 by the American Council on Education. The Council conducted a survey on current practices in evaluation of teaching in various types of colleges. Of the faculty and administrative staff questioned in the community-junior colleges, 98.2% said that classroom teaching was the major factor to consider in evaluation; only 1% listed research and/or publication as an important factor. In other types of colleges, 20% to 90% of the faculty and staff considered research and publication important factors in the evaluation of teaching. [34:11-13]

This emphasis on instruction and the other challenging problems in a community-junior college demand a different kind of instructor for this different kind of higher educational institution. At the present time little is being done to train men and women for community-junior college teaching, and yet, by 1975, it is conservatively estimated that at least an additional 100,000 instructors will be needed. [16:5]

In addition to the problems concerning instruction and training, the community-junior college faculty person, because of the newness and uniqueness of the two-year college, is unsure of his status in the educational spectrum and is concerned about his professionalism. [16:15] There are several factors causing this situation: because faculty members, like students, are often commuters, there is no sense of "belonging to a faculty"; no professional organizations exist for the community-junior college faculty members as exist for their four-year counterparts; few community-junior colleges have policies concerning sabbatical leaves; fewer community-junior colleges have funds available to send faculty members to seminars or meetings; and because of the demands on the time of faculty persons due to the rapidly increasing enrollments in community-junior colleges, faculty members have little or no time to take refresher courses or upgrade themselves in other ways professionally. [16:30-40]

Another important factor which makes the community-junior college faculty member unsure of his status is the fact that many community-junior colleges are considered part of the public school system. Community-junior college education is supposedly higher education; yet when instructors must fill out forms for field trips like public school teachers and salute the flag each morning in class, it seems little like higher education. [16:25]

Faculty recruitment presents another problem strongly felt at the community-junior college level. Because of inadequate financing and soaring enrollments, both the number of classes community-junior college instructors must teach and the number of students per class steadily increase. Concerned faculty members are aware of the recruitment problem this presents, for as Garrison heard often from instructors, if "the word gets around the graduate schools about typical teaching loads and time pressure, what's going to make junior college teaching attractive to the bright, capable young people with a real future in education?" [16:30]

The community-junior college instructor deals with college-age students and adults; he works with college-level material; he teaches marketable skills; and he produces students capable of transferring to four-year institutions.

Yet he is often given classloads like the public school teacher, salaries like the public school teacher, and even less supportive help than the public school teacher.

In addition, the community-junior college instructor is faced with the challenge of teaching a more comprehensive student body than instructors and teachers at other educational institutions. He is also given the challenge of constantly creating and developing new courses to fulfill the needs of this comprehensive student body.

It does seem a possibility that the fundamental factor which determines the uniqueness of the community-junior college, the open-door policy, may well fail unless large-scale provisions are made to help the faculty. [16:43]

In essence, the single most important key to problems faced by the community-junior college faculty is money. With more faculty members and a smaller load per instructor, many of the problems could be handled. As the president of the American Association of Junior Colleges said, "no one must be fooled into believing that the open door means the usual college curriculum at community college bargain prices." [22:20] Communities must be willing to pay for quality.

### *Program*

A number of problems seem to be inherent in the community-junior college program, most of which are due to the very nature of the community-junior college.

Because of close community ties and encouragement given to community members to participate in the development and planning of the community-junior college program, the community-junior college is made susceptible to pressure group demands on content in all courses. While there is a certain legitimacy in these demands for some of the programs offered, particularly occupational courses, it can become most difficult when pressure is applied for dictated content in the academic affairs and general education courses.

In addition to local pressure on course content, limitations are often set at the state level, by law, which place handicaps on the community-junior college program. Some legislatures go to an extreme and demand that the only courses allowed in community-junior colleges will be those that have the same content and even course title as those offered in four-year colleges and universities. Other laws demand that state-level departments approve course titles and content.

Another problem in the community-junior college program lies in the general attitudes toward the academic affairs program and the occupational program. Often community persons and students feel the only part of the community-junior college program with status or prestige is the academic affairs program. (This is exemplified by the large number of students who initially enroll in this program versus the smaller number that actually transfer.) The occupational program receives the brunt of this attitude, which has been determined generally by the community as a whole.

The stigma of "undesirable" which is attached by many persons to the occupational program is most detrimental. It seems that real public relations

efforts must be made to bring more interest to the semi-professional and technical occupations. Information needs to not just be made available to, but must actively be *given* to students, parents, community members and high school personnel about the opportunities available in these fields, the demand for trained personnel and the salaries available. [21:49]

Although the concept of a community-junior college includes the aspect of innovation, flexibility, and experimentation, community-junior colleges are still caught in a pull between traditional programs and experimental programs. While most colleges tend to gravitate toward the traditional program, it is the experimental program that is needed to respond to the rapidly changing needs of society and its members. The development of experimental programs, however, presents difficulties for most community-junior colleges. Such program development demands the availability of competent persons and of additional money to hire more faculty members so some instructors can be released from teaching time to thinking, planning, and developing time. When a new program is developed, however, then there exists the additional problem of recruiting and preparing persons to teach in the program. As a result, many community-junior colleges simply stay with traditional courses and thereby forfeit the meaning behind the term "community."

There is yet another reason for community-junior colleges to offer traditional programs as opposed to experimental ones, and that is the transferring of credits. It is safer to develop an academic affairs program that duplicates the traditional courses taught at the lower division levels of four-year colleges and universities. Though such courses may be outdated and not responsive to the needs of the community, they are generally easily transferable as credits to four-year institutions.

This problem of transferring credits is a most important one to the community-junior college. For various reasons four-year colleges and universities are often reluctant to give community-junior college transfer students full credit for courses completed in the two-year college. While it is true that in some community-junior colleges the education is inferior to that given at a four-year institution, in general, students who transfer have proven their ability to continue their education satisfactorily at the four-year institution.

States are responding in a number of ways to this controversial issue of credit transfer. The master plan for education in California (where public junior colleges enroll more than two-thirds of all lower division students) states that junior colleges are a part of the tripartite system of higher education. Thus, the two-year college is of equal status, and its proponents refuse to allow the four-year college sole authority to determine what courses it will and will not accept. In a reconciliation attempt, the Articulation Conference has been developed. This is a quadripartite statewide organization devoted to the "efficient progress of students from high school through graduate school." Its major goal is to solve the problem of transferring credits from the two-year public college to the four-year college or university. [31:17]

Florida has responded in another way to the problem of transferring



credits. A policy statement issued by the Florida State Department of Education contains the following basic formula:

Junior college transfers shall be considered as having met the general education requirements of the receiving senior institution if the junior college has certified that the student has completed the lower-division general education requirements of the junior college. This policy should apply to all junior college transfers, both graduates and non-graduates. [31:19]

Transfer credit continues to be one of the major problems in the relationship between two-year and four-year institutions of higher education. Attempts to solve the problem should be made at the local and state level.

The open-door policy, that fundamental democratizing factor of the community-junior college, automatically provides problems also. Unfortunately it seems that an "unobstructed choice of program," on the part of the student, has become a part of the open-door policy. [49:18] When students are allowed the unguided freedom to participate in any program of their choice, the results are often disappointment, frustration (on the part of students and faculty), and failure. It is essential that the students in the community-junior college have success experiences which are more likely to happen if they are aided in making the proper program selection. [49:18-19] The community-junior college has the responsibility to assist students in determining the program or programs most suited to their interests and abilities. Assisting the students in this process, however, goes beyond counselor-student discussions; it must also involve educating parents and high school personnel "to an awareness of the expanding opportunities in the non-transfer areas." [49:19]

It is the student personnel program, of course, which is responsible for helping students make the proper program selection. It is generally recognized by educators knowledgeable of the community-junior college development that competent guidance and counseling services are essential to the success of the open-door admission policy of the community-junior college. Yet all studies available, and particularly the most recent one under the sponsorship and guidance of the American Association of Junior Colleges, seem to show that the student personnel program is the most understaffed, underpaid, and has more incompetent personnel than any other community-junior college program. [4:19-22] Garison's study of community-junior college faculty, for example, brought out the fact that instructors often failed 25% to 35% of their students. [16:77] These percentages could be cut in half, at least, if the guidance services were of the quality they should be, so that students could be placed in programs in which they were most likely to succeed.

It is essential that another part of student personnel services, that of job placement, be performed adequately and competently. The success of the occupational program will be determined by the placement of graduates in positions for which they were trained. One way some community-junior colleges handle job placement is to make arrangements with local business and industry to place graduates in jobs prior to a full program development.



### *Control*

Two-year public colleges, across the country, were predominantly under local control until the 1950's and 1960's. Then, suddenly, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Kentucky, and Virginia went to state operated and supported public colleges, and the beginning of a trend seemed established. In all four cases, the change was made after careful consideration and thought was given, at the state level, to the continued development of two-year colleges. [55:9]

This change to state level control seems in complete contradiction to studies which have consistently shown the following: [55:10]

1. Growth and development of two-year colleges have been limited in states where they were state operated (Wisconsin and Georgia for example). On the other hand, development has been rapid where the legal basis was local control (California, Florida, Michigan, Illinois and New York, for example).
2. There is an obvious difference in the breadth of curriculum and demonstrated concern for occupational programs. Community-junior colleges under local control have generally been more faithful to the philosophical criteria of building programs around community needs.
3. There has been a definable difference in quality (faculty, facilities, program, administration, etc.) between the locally operated and state operated community-junior college.

A number of substantial reasons, however, lay behind this development toward state supported and operated two-year colleges: [55:10]

1. There are changing patterns of financial support. Because of inadequate local tax funds, community-junior colleges are forced to seek support at the state and federal levels.
2. Because of the population mobility, which only increased, the need exists for statewide standards, if not nationwide standards.
3. Trends in most other areas, including education, are toward centralization and consolidation.
4. There seems to be general recognition, in business and industry as well as education, of the value of central planning and coordination.
5. Recently there has been a reemphasis of state responsibility for education (rather than local responsibility).
6. There is general recognition of the need for education beyond the high school level.
7. There is increased federal support for education.

The single most important problem with this trend toward state supported and operated colleges is that along with the loss of local control goes the loss of the vitally essential element of the community-junior college program: community responsibility. In the change to state control, there is often corresponding detailed legislation which makes unjustifiable demands on community-junior college programs: specific courses are prescribed and others

arbitrarily excluded, course sequences are prescribed, and demands are made that community-junior college courses match four-year college courses. These demands, by law, force community-junior colleges to become more unresponsive to the unique needs of the community in which they are located.

Although a trend toward state control of community-junior colleges seems to have developed, the most popular and common form of control for community-junior colleges still is that of local, community-wide control—the independent district.

Ultimately a state has legal control over all two-year public colleges, of course, for legislation in one form or another is passed for a public two-year college to be created. Control then falls into one of four general patterns: public school districts or district, a local elected board independent of an educational institution, a state college or university, or a board at the state level. [2:82]

Some advantages and disadvantages of these various patterns of control are shown below: [2:62-63; 16:25-26; 27:16-19; 30:17-22; 38:308-314]

#### *1. Public School District*

##### *Advantages*

- a. Unused building space can often be utilized for college classes, as well as expensive facilities such as laboratories, shops, gymnasiums and auditoriums.
- b. A greater opportunity exists for vertical integration of curriculum and student personnel services.
- c. Operational costs may be less expensive because of one central administration, centralized purchasing, etc.
- d. Initially, much less time must be spent on detailed organization because the basic organizational system already exists.
- e. Because the college is locally administered, it can be responsible to the educational needs of the community.

##### *Disadvantages*

- a. The college almost automatically is underfinanced as the public schools generally are.
- b. The financial situation constitutes a threat to the staff and faculty of both the public school and the community-junior college; one will probably receive less money because both are funded from the same general budget.
- c. Faculty-teacher tension may exist because college faculty may have lighter loads and higher salaries.
- d. The program is likely to be equated with high school level education rather than higher level education.
- e. The present community attitude toward the public school system probably extends to the community-junior college.
- f. The administration, having two educational systems with which to

deal, is unable to devote full time to the development of the community-junior college.

- g. The administrative and academic atmosphere and requirements may be similar to those of the high school rather than those of a college or university.
- h. The community-junior college may be susceptible to bureaucratic red tape and the consequent delays of large public school districts.
- i. The community-junior college is controlled by the same board of education members as the public school system who may or may not be interested in a community-junior college.

## 2. *Independent District*

### Advantages

- a. Close ties to the community exist, with community support and acceptance being obvious; there is a greater chance for the community-junior college to become a real part of the community.
- b. A more adequate tax base on which to support the desired program is possible; many school districts may be part of the community-junior college district.
- c. There is more freedom of movement and time for the board and administration to develop programs.
- d. Separate, thus, distinctive facilities exist.
- e. Because of its close ties to the community, the college is more adaptable to changes and innovations desired by the community members.
- f. Because of an identity, administration and facilities of its own, it is more likely to operate as a true collegiate institution.

### Disadvantages

- a. The tendency exists to rob the public schools of their faculty.
- b. Setting up another tax for residents to pay may be resented by community members.
- c. The program must be sold on its own, generally with little initial help from public schools and/or four-year institutions.
- d. The college and its programs are susceptible to local pressure groups.
- e. Unless state support is received, the college is limited to local resources to meet capital outlay and operational expenses.
- f. The program must be articulated with both the high schools and four-year colleges, without the administrative advantages of an affiliation with either one.

## 3. *College or University Branch*

### Advantages

- a. The experience of the university in organizing and administering a college-level program is utilized, usually with the results of high and uniform standards.
- b. Effective statewide planning is encouraged.

- c. The high prestige of a university is retained; the quality of instruction is considered equal to that of the parent institution.
- d. The faculty is of a high quality.
- e. The college can resist local pressure group demands.
- f. The branch campus is generally immediately accredited as part of the parent institution.
- g. The transfer of course credits is facilitated by the branch's affiliation.

#### Disadvantages

- a. There is no orientation to the local community; few attempts are made to meet the wide variety of local needs.
- b. The program is not comprehensive; the narrow curriculum has a major emphasis on the transfer program.
- c. Courses are likely to be simply duplications of the mother campus lower division courses, with little leeway for new and/or experimental programs.
- d. There is a lack of financial stability; the branch campus is usually required to be self-supporting; if the university receives a cut in funds, the branch campus will be the first to feel the financial cut.
- e. The tuition policy, fee structure, and admission policy are the same at the branch campus as at the parent institution. Tuition and fees are higher and the admission policy a restricting one; thus the democratizing factors of the typical community-junior college is not present.
- f. The total program, as part of a traditional institution, lacks the freedom for experimentation and change.
- g. Lack of interest among professors for lower level courses and/or students exists; professors are likely to prefer teaching in the four-year college.

#### 4. State Level Control

##### Advantages

- a. There is greater financial stability.
- b. A more consistent statewide pattern of educational opportunities is evident.
- c. There is a consistent quality of programs and faculty; mobility presents no problem because of statewide standards.
- d. Operational costs and capital construction programs are more economical.
- e. Adequate articulation of educational programs on all levels exists.
- f. The fees charged to all in-state students are the same.
- g. Usually these institutions can offer a community-junior college program and at the same time specialize in unique programs that are needed in the state but which would not be economical to operate in the public school district or independent district.

##### Disadvantages

- a. The state is often susceptible to political pressures concerning location and curriculum of the college.

- b. There is poor knowledge of community wants and needs; there is little, if any, representation of local interests at the decision-making level.
- c. The college is less adaptable to community changes and needs.
- d. There may be less community acceptance than that given the local or independent institution because control and support are at the state level.
- e. It is continually in competition for funds with the publicly supported four-year colleges and universities which are also state controlled and state supported.



## STUDENTS IN THE COMMUNITY-JUNIOR COLLEGE

Difficulties arise quickly when attempts are made to describe the students in community-junior colleges. These difficulties are due primarily to the fact that few recent comprehensive studies have been made on the community-junior college students. The good studies that have been made concern only students from one community-junior college, or a very small sample of students over the country. Generalizations cannot be made easily from such studies.

Another reason for the difficulty in describing the community-junior college students is that they are extremely diversified beings. As an example, the oversimplified statements below are descriptive samples of only one type of community-junior college student—the college-age student. [4: 12]

1. The high school graduate of moderate ability and achievement who enters a community-junior college right after high school as a full-time student with the intention of transferring to a given institution with a particular major.
2. The high school graduate of special aptitude and achievement who seeks rapid training for early employment.
3. The low achiever in high school who finally awakens to the values of college and then becomes highly motivated to enroll in a community-junior college transfer program for which he is not equipped, yet who may have the necessary potential.
4. The able high school graduate who could go to any college but selected the local community-junior college because of the respect and loyalty he has gained for it or for reasons of convenience.
5. The high school graduate of low ability who enters the community-junior college because of social pressures or because he cannot find employment.
6. The students of varying abilities and ages with a high valuation of the world of ideas who primarily seek intellectual stimulation.
7. The very bright high school graduate who is eligible for admission to a major university but may lack the necessary social maturity and intellectual disposition.
8. The intellectually capable but unmotivated, disinterested high school graduate who comes to the community-junior college to explore, hoping it will offer him something, but he does not know what.
9. The transfer from a four-year college who either failed or withdrew after an unsatisfactory experience.
10. The high school dropout, perhaps from a minority group and a culturally disadvantaged family, with only grade school-level skills and a strong interest in securing vocational training.
11. The youngsters, and also adults, who fully believe the societal direction that the road to success leads through a college campus but whose perception of success is so murky that its relationship to learning is virtually lost.
12. The immature high school graduate whose current concept of college

has never extended much beyond girls (boys), ballgames, rallies and dances.

A large number of descriptive statements could be made also about the adult students in the community-junior college who make up close to one-half of the student body. There is the adult technician who needs retraining; the mother who finds time on her hands because her children are no longer young; the Ph.D. who seeks specific practical information; the woman who wants intellectual stimulation and knowledge so she will not feel "uneducated" around her professional husband; the man who sees automation close to rendering his skill useless and needs training in another field; the woman who is suddenly placed in a position of having to support her family but has no marketable skills; the recently retired grandparents who seek hobby skills in order to spend leisure time constructively.

The community-junior college which provides programs for all of these people and many others has been described as a "surrounder" college; it is not a "tweener" school as the junior high is between the elementary school and the high school; rather it surrounds and takes in all people. [3:1] And as a result, the community-junior college student "is almost as varied as humanity itself." [4:12]

In spite of the evident difficulties in making generalized statements about the characteristics of the diversified community-junior college students, some of the more knowledgeable spokesmen for the community-junior college have made general statements, backed by various studies, about the community-junior college students. These statements can be categorized in a number of ways; it is hoped that the method chosen will facilitate an understanding of the community-junior college students.

There are a few easily measurable vital statistics about community-junior college students which can be pointed out:

1. Men outnumber the women, about 2-1. [4:9]
2. About 50% of the students are under 20; about 16% are over 30 years of age. [4:9]
3. About one-fourth are married. [2:108]

Other general characteristics of students, not so easily measurable, are described in the following sections.

### *Background*

Considering the community-junior college student body as a whole, there is a significant socioeconomic-educational pattern evident in the background of these students.

The educational background of the parents of these students is varied. About 20% of the parents have a grade school education, about 50% of the fathers have a high school education, and about 30% of the fathers have had some college education. [4:10]

The occupations, in general, followed by fathers of community-junior college students fall into the middle occupational categories of skilled, semiprofessional and small business. [4:10]

One report made on the socioeconomic background contained information from a variety of studies on students in community-junior colleges in California, in the Henry Ford Community College and in the Flint Community Junior College of the University of Michigan. The report showed, among other things, that a large percentage of the students were from families on the lower socioeconomic scale, in the blue-collar category. Over 60% came from unskilled, semiskilled, and skilled occupations. [2:115] Various other studies made at other community-junior colleges also show that the majority of the students are from a lower socioeconomic level.

Conclusions from other studies and reports show that, as a whole, community-junior college freshmen enter the educational institution with "lower personal motivation and less academic ability." [2:114] Studies show also that many of the students have not been conditioned to perceive education as a high-level value and that students from lower socioeconomic backgrounds are not as likely to be academically successful as students from higher socioeconomic backgrounds. [2:112]

All these studies have direct implications for the guidance and counseling services at the community-junior college as well as the methods of teaching and attitudes of teachers.

#### *Academic Ability*

Studies show that community-junior college students "with the greatest ability compare favorably with the most able students in four-year colleges." [48:47] However, when the less able of the two groups are compared, differences usually do appear, for "the less able in the junior college drop substantially below the less able in the four-year college." [48:47]

The fact that a wide academic ability range exists among community-junior college students is understandable, due to the comprehensive programs offered at the colleges, and because of the non-selective admission policies. [15:78] It is expected that this range will increase in the future, rather than decrease, partially because entrance standards to four-year colleges and universities continue to rise which forces the less academically talented into the community-junior college.

In one comprehensive study the academic aptitude of community-junior college freshmen and high school seniors was compared. Although there was an obvious difference in some states, in general the academic aptitudes were the same. [4:10] This same study compared the reading ability of unselected community-junior college students and the top 15% of high school students. The reading patterns of both groups were similar (one-fourth of both groups read more than twenty-five books; one-half of both groups said they owned none), but the high school students were more competent readers than the unselected community-junior college students. The study also showed that one-third of the community-junior college freshmen needed formal work in reading skill development. [4:10] (About

one-third also needed developmental or remedial instruction in other skill subjects—composition, listening, speech, arithmetic.) [4:12]

The same study further showed that, as a total group, community-junior college freshmen were “markedly lower in academic potential than students who [were permitted to] enter directly” into four-year colleges and universities. On the other hand, community-junior college students who entered other colleges in the junior year were “only slightly less endowed, if at all, than native students.” [4:11]

Additional information from the study shows that four-year colleges and universities draw 75% of their students from high school graduates whose academic achievement is in the upper two-fifths, while community-junior colleges draw only 50% of their students from the upper two-fifths in academic achievement. [4:11]

Thus it can be seen that, when the total community-junior college student body is under consideration, the academic potential and academic achievement is definitely lower than that of the student body of four-year colleges and universities. However, a significant portion of the community-junior college students do rank at the same level with more able students in four-year colleges and universities.

### *Employment*

A large number of students in the two-year public colleges around the country earn part or all of the money necessary to pay their college expenses. There are significant patterns of student employment according to type of college, however. One study showed that in a local or district community-junior college, about 40% of the students are employed; 27% of the students in a state controlled and supported two-year college were employed; 16% in a branch college; and 15% in a church-related two-year college. [48:47-48]

Most articles/books which contain information about employment of community-junior college students claim that about one-half of the students work. One study shows that of those students who work, 24% were in clerical and sales; 14% in services; 12% in professional and marginal positions; 12% in unskilled; 11% skilled; 7% housewives, 7% unemployed, 5% unskilled; and less than 1% in agriculture. [2:109] As a result of these percentages, one writer concludes that the figures “support the thesis that adult students are motivated by the prospect of vertical mobility on the socio-economic scale.” [2:109]

Another study made of students in academic affairs programs who planned to transfer to a college or university showed that two-thirds were earning some of their college expenses, and 30% were receiving no parental financial aid. [4:11]

The implications of these statistics are significant, particularly where the local or district controlled and supported community-junior college is concerned. This type of college is generally the least expensive of all types of two-year colleges to attend, yet more of its students are employed than in any of the other types of colleges.



It can be anticipated, then, that the local community-junior college is going to have a large degree of part-time students, occupationally-oriented students, older students, and students less interested in the social aspects of the college or the "college experience."

#### *Occupational Choices*

There seems to be a strong tendency for the community-junior college students, in general, to stabilize an uncertain middle-class position. Business administration and engineering are the most common occupational choices made by men; women choose teaching, secretarial science and sales; 80% of the entrants aspire to jobs classified as semiprofessional or higher. Of the lower level ability group, over one-half strive for semiprofessional occupations, only 7% seek training in skilled trades. In spite of these figures, 50% of the students claim their uncertainty about occupational choices; one-third of those students who transferred admitted changing their minds at least once during attendance at the community-junior college. [4:11]

Some studies point up the fact that the past educational experience of students plays a large role in determining the occupational choice the students make in community-junior colleges. One such study showed that students with a vocational background in high school tended to enroll in terminal programs in the community-junior college; those with academic backgrounds in high school chose the academic affairs (transfer) programs in the college. [2:116]

(It is significant also to know that individuals from high income groups concentrate on courses such as advanced math, the sciences, and foreign languages in high school. Students from low income groups enroll heavily in business, home economics, art, music, and health education. [2:110] Thus, a certain weeding out has taken place in the public school system even before students reach the college level.)

In all, there is a definite consistency "with which previous educational experience, family influences, and socio-economic level affect the curricular and occupational choices of students." [2:116]

#### *Motivational Attitude*

The study on the community-junior college student sponsored by the American Association of Junior Colleges revealed a number of interesting factors which distinguish the community-junior college student from the four-year college or university student. [4:10-11]

1. The single most important motivational attitude of the community-junior college student seemed to be that of exploration. The students wanted to find out what the college could offer, where their own interests and capabilities were, and how they could make their entrance into adult life and adult work.
2. Besides being different from university students in academic aptitudes the community-junior college students, as a group, are distinguished also in "academic commitment or academic concern."

- a. Community-junior college students have less discussions about college with their parents.
- b. Only 43% indicated college was highly important in their value scheme, while 74% of four-year students indicated this.
- c. They are more likely to have postponed major decisions about college and a career.
- d. They have received less encouragement from parents and teachers to attend college.

#### *College-Age Youth vs. Adult Students*

Community-junior college students are composed of two very distinct groups. For purposes of easy identification they can be classified as "college-age youth" and "adults." The first group, aged 17-21, is generally composed of high school graduates who enter the college immediately after graduation and continue on a part- or full-time basis. The latter group, adults, which comprises half of the community-junior college population, consists of persons with an age range of 20-70 (with some up to age 90) and have little interest in nonclassroom activities. [2:107-108]

The following characteristics seem to be generally true about the college-age youth: [2:117-121]

1. There is a lack of realism in his occupational choice.  
Studies show he has little or no knowledge of requirements of the job he has chosen to pursue; he does not see the difference between interest in an occupation and ability to perform the required duties.
2. He has a need for security and status.  
The college-age youth wants visible personal identification as a college student, wants peer relationship and identification, wants emancipation from home and parents, seeks identification with a status occupation or curriculum, sees college as a milieu in which he can live and be treated as an adult, and seeks to qualify himself for a vocation.
3. Although finances play a big part in determining if an individual goes to a community-junior college, many community-junior college students, unlike most four-year college students, demonstrate their desires to continue familiar patterns of life in the home and community (live at home, continue work in home town, and remain with friends).

Characteristics of the adult student at the community-junior college include the following: [2:123-125]

1. The majority of the adult students spend much of their day in activities that have little or no relation to college, like full-time jobs or families.
2. The community-junior college is perceived as a means to an end, by the adults, the way to long-range personal and vocational goals.
3. The adult is not interested in extracurricular activities and college-

sponsored cultural events; he rejects "capricious or immature behavior by instructors and bureaucratic procedures and requirements by the administration." [2:124]

4. He has a strong vocational orientation. In one study 75% of the adult students stated their objective in attending the community-junior college was professional or vocational. 85% stated they were attending to get better jobs.

Thus, it can be seen that two very distinct groups of students, with different characteristics, exist at the community-junior college institution. The implications of this are of utmost importance to administrative personnel in determining curriculum, hiring instructors, and planning the student personnel program.

### *Summary*

A characteristic pattern has been identified for the majority of the community-junior college students. They come from families on the lower socio-economical scale, generally from parents who have had no more than a high school education. Their academic potential and academic achievement is lower than that of the four-year college student, with many students needing developmental or remedial instruction. A wide ability range does exist among community-junior college students, however, and a significant number of them easily rank equally with the more academically able students in the four-year college and university. Transfer students, in general, adjust readily to the four-year curriculum.

About one-half of the community-junior college students are employed either part or full time when attending school, with a greater percentage of students in a local community-junior college being employed than in other two-year colleges. Occupational choices made by the students, regardless of their abilities, are most likely to be of the upper level technical or semiprofessional level.

There seem to exist distinguishable motivational attitudes of the community-junior college student which show him to be of an exploratory nature and to be less academically concerned or committed than the four-year college or university student.

Significant differences do exist between two distinctive community-junior college groups, the college-age youth and the adult students. The adult student is generally much more mature, with a strong vocational orientation.

The danger, of course, in even making these generalizations about community-junior college students is that a community-junior college program may then be developed to fulfill the most likely needs of the kind of student just described. If this is done, there will be a great number of students to whom the community-junior college will not respond. It must be remembered that the community-junior college student body is an extremely diversified entity and that any community-junior college program must be planned and developed accordingly.

## RECOMMENDED PROCEDURES FOR ESTABLISHING THE COMMUNITY-JUNIOR COLLEGE

The American Association of Junior Colleges has a carefully designed set of twelve procedures to be followed for the sound establishment of community-junior colleges. In accord with these procedures the Commission on Legislation of the Association has developed a group of seven principles which ultimately should govern, in any state, the legal establishment of community-junior colleges. [6:passim] The seven principles are described briefly below:

1. Community-junior colleges should be established in accordance with an overall state plan for higher education which provides for diversified educational programs and a geographic distribution of opportunity. (The state legislature should pay for such a study.)
2. A local community-junior college should be established only subsequent to a survey which will determine the relationship of the proposed district to the state plan and the readiness of the proposed district to accept its share of responsibility. The survey should include the following:
  - Socioeconomic and population descriptions of the proposed district;
  - Maps showing topography, road systems, population centers, and main commuting routes to a proposed campus center;
  - Follow-up studies of high school students in previous years;
  - Prospective community-junior college students;
  - Post-high school programs now in operation in the area to be served;
  - Programs of high school level in the area;
  - Facilities and/or sites available which may be used either temporarily or permanently by the college;
  - Guidance facilities now available;
  - Teaching staff available;
  - Community attitudes—evidences of community support, hostility, or indifference; and
  - Extent of local resources for financing the community-junior college.
3. The legislature should establish a state agency with responsibilities for approving the establishment of a community-junior college in accordance with the state plan or should assign such responsibility to an existing state agency which has overall supervisory authority.
4. The control of a community-junior college should be vested preferably in a local board whose sole responsibility is the operation and management of the college.
5. Community-junior colleges should have assurance of continued financial support with a minimum tuition burden on the student and



with a division between state and local support in keeping with the general fiscal pattern of the state.

6. The program of community-junior colleges should contribute to meeting the diverse post-high school educational needs of the community and the state.
7. The organization, operation, and control of community-junior colleges should reflect both a recognition of the institutional integrity of the college and its coordinate relationships with other educational levels within the state.

A number of states have followed these principles in the legal establishment of community-junior colleges; a larger number of states do have, at least, an overall state plan for higher education which includes the role of the community-junior college and procedures for the establishment of community-junior colleges.

The state of New Mexico, however, does not have an overall state plan for higher education which includes the role of the community-junior college. Thus, the first and most basic principle recommended by the American Association of Junior Colleges for the sound establishment of community-junior colleges has not been recognized by the state of New Mexico. Some of the other principles, however, are adhered to in the procedures established for the creation of community-junior colleges in New Mexico.

For example, the second recommended principle is followed in part in New Mexico. By law, a survey is required to determine the readiness of a proposed community-junior college district to accept its share of responsibility in the creation of a community-junior college. Not all the information suggested in such a survey, however, is required in New Mexico. The other part of the principle, determining the relationships of the proposed district to the state plan, is not relevant in New Mexico.

As partial fulfillment of the third principle, responsibility has been given to an existing state agency, the State Board of Educational Finance, to approve the establishment of a community-junior college. This responsibility does not require, however, as suggested by the American Association of Junior Colleges, approval based on accordance with a state plan.

The fourth principle is satisfied by the procedures in New Mexico because control of the community-junior college is vested in a local board whose sole responsibility is the operation and management of the college.

Principle five, also, is partially adhered to; however, the assurance of continued financial support is dependent upon the residents within the district. Since most of the funds for capital outlay and operational expenses come from tax levies and bond sales, the citizens, periodically, must approve or disapprove both sources of funds. It is possible, of course, that the residents of a district would vote down the tax levy or the bond issue; under such circumstances, it would be most difficult for the community-junior college to continue its existence. Presently there is a minimum tuition burden on the students in the one community-junior college in New Mexico, but the tuition rate is determined by the individual community-

junior college board. There is a division between state and local support only in that the presently established pattern is that the state will supply \$300 per full-time student equivalent, regardless of location, size, or program of the college.

It is assumed, as principle six recommends, the community-junior college program will contribute to meeting the diverse post-high school educational needs of the community. Since there exists no state plan dealing with community-junior colleges, however, it is questionable that a community-junior college would be concerned with program needs at a statewide level.

Again, partial fulfillment is achieved with another principle—the seventh one. The organization, operation, and control of the community-junior college in New Mexico does reflect a recognition of institutional integrity, for the laws provide for local control, ownership, and operation. Articulation with other educational levels in the state is certainly hampered, however, because of the lack of any statewide planning and support of community-junior colleges.

In essence, then, the state of New Mexico primarily does not adhere to the seven principles suggested to govern the sound establishment of community-junior colleges because of the failure to provide an overall state plan for higher education which includes the role and function of the community-junior college in relation to diversified educational programs and a geographic distribution of opportunity. Thus, any community-junior college that might be created in New Mexico could be established in isolation, with little, if any, effort being made to coordinate local needs and opportunities with those of other communities or regions in the state.

## THE COMMUNITY-JUNIOR COLLEGE IN NEW MEXICO

A number of two-year colleges exist in New Mexico. (See Appendix III). Most of these are branch extensions of the various universities, with the exception of New Mexico Military Institute and the New Mexico Junior College. The New Mexico Junior College in Hobbs is the only locally supported and controlled community-junior college in New Mexico. It was established in the fall of 1966.

As early as 1951 citizens in Lea County attempted to get enabling legislation passed by the New Mexico State Legislature for the purpose of allowing a community to establish a locally supported and controlled community-junior college. Bills were introduced in every successive legislative session after 1951. Finally in 1963 the Junior College Act came into being. It contains the following important provisions: [28:passim]

1. The junior college district shall be composed of the territory of one or more contiguous school districts in one or more counties.
2. The junior college shall not be considered a part of the uniform system of free public schools, shall not benefit from the permanent or current school fund, shall not be subject to the control, management and direction of the state board of education, and shall not be considered a school district for the purposes of a uniform system of textbooks for the public schools.
3. A petition calling for the organization of a junior college district shall be signed by qualified electors, residents of the area of each school district involved, in a number equal to or in excess of ten per cent of the votes cast for governor in the last preceding general election in each school district within the area of the junior college district.
4. The petition must be filed with the State Board of Educational Finance which will then conduct a feasibility survey to determine the need for the college and the prospect for its adequate support. The petition will be approved and a referendum election called if the survey shows that:
  - a. the district boundaries, as proposed, are suited geographically;
  - b. the existence of an adequate school population and other factors indicate that the proposed junior college will serve an enrollment of at least two hundred and fifty (250) full-time student equivalent;
  - c. the financial position of the proposed junior college district is adequate to provide the necessary supporting funds for current operations, and the necessary capital outlay for physical plant and equipment; and
  - d. a comprehensive plan has been formulated showing:
    - (1) the projected enrollment for the next ten (10) years;
    - (2) a general plan for buildings for the immediate proposed

- construction and for future expansion for the next ten (10) years;
- (3) a plan for the practical and efficient use of the buildings by the local public school unit and suitable arrangements for financial compensation for all public school districts within the junior college district in the event the junior college is dissolved;
  - (4) a transportation plan that sets forth a proposed method of transportation from parts of the district; and
  - (5) a proposed budget for the first two (2) years of operation.
5. A date for the referendum election shall be set by the Board of Educational Finance.
  6. If qualified electors voting do not approve of the establishment of a junior college, another similar election cannot be held for two years. However, a second election can be held sooner if the area for the junior college district in the second election is different than the area considered in the first election.
  7. For the junior college district to be declared created, a majority of the voters must approve it, and this majority must constitute at least 15% of the number of votes cast for governor in the last general election; this majority must exist in all public school districts within the junior college district.
  8. A meeting of the members of all boards of education within the district shall be held within 60 days of the election. Those board members shall elect five persons to be the members of the junior college board. Those members serve until the next regular junior college election, held on the first Tuesday of March of each odd-numbered year, when registered voters shall elect the board members.
  9. The board shall determine the financial and educational policies; it shall select a president.
  10. The junior college may elect to affiliate with a higher educational institution.
  11. The State Board of Educational Finance shall prescribe the course of study, in conjunction with the junior college board. The Board of Educational Finance shall regularly determine if the junior college complies with rules and regulations it establishes.
  12. Bonds may be issued, upon approval of the people, but may not create a total bonded indebtedness in the district in excess of 3% of the assessed valuation of taxable property within the district.
  13. There may be a special tax levied for operation of the junior college, not to exceed 5 mills, upon voted approval of the people.
  14. Contiguous school districts may be added to the existing junior college district, upon majority approval vote given by the qualified electors of the petitioning district and the qualified electors within the established junior college district.



Adhering to the legal procedures as outlined in the Junior College Act, citizens in Lea County established the New Mexico Junior College in Hobbs, New Mexico, in the fall of 1966. Other than a small number of regulatory and supervisory duties performed by the State Board of Educational Finance, control of and authority over the community-junior college resides within a locally elected district board.

Although funds are available from four sources for operating expenses and capital outlay, two of the sources, the special tax levy and the sale of bonds, provide most of the money necessary for the building and operation of New Mexico Junior College.

A modest tuition is required of students; state aid is available in the form of \$300 per full-time student equivalent.

## SUGGESTED PROGRAM CONSIDERATIONS FOR AN ALBUQUERQUE COMMUNITY-JUNIOR COLLEGE

It is anticipated that a community-junior college established in the Albuquerque vicinity would be providing services and programs for at least 4,000 persons within five years. [5:12] A student population of this size would represent a most comprehensive set of desires, needs, and abilities. In response to the size and diversity of such a student body, a correspondingly comprehensive program would need to be developed at the college. This program should be designed to cover the six broad program areas found in most comprehensive community-junior colleges: academic affairs, occupational education, general education, continuing education, community services, and student personnel services.

A developing community-junior college, in order to determine the specific courses to be offered within these six broad program areas, should develop systematic procedures to assess both the needs of the area it is serving and the community-junior college total capabilities to fulfill those needs. Through this process priorities must be identified and decisions made about how the resources of the college could be applied most effectively.

Even though such systematic procedures have not been developed yet, it is possible for some general suggestions for program considerations to be made. Such suggestions seem necessary, even at this early point in discussion and planning, to provide a general idea of the size and scope of a community-junior college program that could be developed in Albuquerque. In the following pages, each of the six program areas are explored in terms of possible course offerings.

### I. ACADEMIC AFFAIRS PROGRAM

Experience of two-year colleges across the nation is that at least half of the entering freshmen select the academic affairs program with the full intention of transferring to a four-year college or university the beginning of their junior year, if not before. More liberal estimates are that two-thirds of all entering freshmen sign up for the academic affairs program with the intention of transferring.

Even though only about 30% of community-junior college entrants actually transfer to other colleges and universities, it is rather obvious that this opportunity should be provided in any community-junior college and, most certainly, in one established in Albuquerque.

The academic affairs program should be a full two-year program, with the Associate Degree being awarded upon successful completion. A policy decision must be made, of course, about whether admission to this program would be selective or open.

Courses offered in the academic affairs program are, in most community-junior colleges, rather traditional ones; they are duplicates of courses in

accepted academic disciplines offered in nearby four-year colleges and universities. Unfortunately, little creativeness is shown in the development of these courses in community-junior colleges which is due primarily to the fact that courses differing from the traditional ones are less likely to be accepted for transfer credit by four-year colleges and universities.

The following list of courses should be accepted for credit in most transfer situations and should provide the basic academic affairs program: [2:214]

- English Composition
- Foreign Languages
- Humanities
  - English and American Literature
  - Foreign Literature
  - Music Appreciation
  - Fine Arts
- Social Sciences
  - Anthropology
  - Economics
  - Geography
  - History
  - Political Science
  - Psychology
  - Sociology
- Natural Sciences
- Math
- Physical Education

If, upon entry into the community-junior college, a student has already made a choice concerning the academic field in which he plans to acquire a baccalaureate degree, it should be possible for him to deviate from the traditional courses required in the community-junior college. For example, if he has decided upon business administration, he should be able to take accounting, economics, or algebra instead of a foreign language.

In addition to allowing flexibility in course requirements, efforts should continually be made by creative educators to develop courses relevant to current local, regional and/or national concerns and interests; these courses could be offered within the academic affairs program. Continuing efforts must be made, of course, to have such courses accepted for credit in other colleges and universities.

Examples of such creative courses that could be developed would be a community study course or a physical development program. A "Community Studies" course, offered at Niagara County Community College in New York exposes students to current problems and issues in urbanization confronting the country. [29:26-27] Such a course, most relevant to pressing needs of the twentieth century, should be accepted for transfer credit within the social sciences. To facilitate successful transfer, such a course may be given a generalized catalog title, such as "Sociology I."

Another creative program that could be offered would be a physical development program rather than the traditional physical education program. [3:37] This type of program would actually compete with commercial health clubs and the country clubs; essentially it would provide workout space for the individual. The facilities could be developed to accommodate "a come-and-go affair of 15- to 20-minute workouts." The area would not need to be elaborate, just well constructed to allow for isometrics, a sauna bath, whirlpools, judo, stationary cycles, exercise boards, hardball and squash courts. A swimming pool would be desirable as well as badminton, tennis, and volleyball courts. This type of program would, of course, operate on the following assumptions:

- 1) Fitness is a highly individual matter;
- 2) One does not have to be forced to take exercise when there is a variety of physical activities available in an attractive and efficient environment.

Whether the curriculum development staff of a community-junior college could develop creative and experimental programs such as the two mentioned, or whether the choice is made to offer a rich traditional program, there is no doubt but that an academic affairs program must be offered by the community-junior college. From community-junior college experience across the country, it should be anticipated that at least one-half to two-thirds of entering students would be involved in this program; thus, staff and facilities should be provided accordingly.

## II. OCCUPATIONAL TRAINING PROGRAMS

If a community-junior college has sensitive and creative leadership, there is no limit to the kinds of occupational training programs (vocational and technical) and courses that can be offered students. In community-junior colleges around the nation program offerings include training in such areas as teacher assistantship training, chemical technology, labor studies, cytotechnology, legal secretary, library technology, real estate law, transportation and traffic management, marine technology, petroleum technology, mental health technology, microelectronics, retail business management, medical facilities education, broadcasting, watchmaking, community service education, citrus technology and traffic technology. [45:passim]

The key to providing a variety of vital and successful programs as the ones suggested above depends upon a number of factors. The following influences, for example, in various intricate relationships, will determine the community-junior college program: [2:205]

1. Extraintitutional influences:
  - Requirements of four-year colleges and universities
  - Occupational requirements
  - Local attitudes and traditions
  - Changing social and economic pressures



- Types of students
- State and national policies and regulations
- 2. Intrainstitutional influences:
  - Philosophy and objectives of the college
  - Training, values, and attitudes of society
  - Physical plant and equipment
  - Traditional vs. experimental concepts of education
  - Sensitivity of college to local, state and national educational needs
- 3. Administration:
  - Financial support
  - Policies of board of control
  - Concept of roles of the college
  - Institutional climate (democratic vs. authoritarian)

In addition to the above influences, there are certain general conditions which must exist if the occupational training program is to be successfully developed as part of the community-junior college. [2:219-220]

1. The community which supports the college must be clearly committed to the idea of providing occupation-oriented programs for those students who are not planning to go on to a four-year college and for adults who are already employed in the community.
2. The administration and the faculty of the college must fully accept, as a major task of the institution, the goal of preparing students for employment.
3. The internal administrative structure must be such as to facilitate the development of occupation-oriented programs.
4. Administrative and supervisory offices in the organization must be staffed with specialists who understand occupational education and who have the responsibility for the development and operation of the program.
5. Provisions must be made in the administrative structure for continuous curriculum development. Programs must be continuously evaluated, revised when necessary, dropped when they are no longer needed, and supplemented or replaced as new needs arise.
6. Policies regarding student selection must be carefully developed and rigidly adhered to. Admission into occupation-oriented programs should be based upon realistic standards. These standards would not be the same for all programs.
7. Placement services no less intensive than those provided for college-bound youth must be made available to employment-bound youth.

The third factor involved in providing a vital and successful occupational training program is a correct determination of the specific occupational training courses to be offered at the community-junior college. The most reasonable way to determine these course offerings is to develop systematic procedures for assessing program needs and for assessing the capability of the community-junior college to provide such programs.

Assessing program needs includes, primarily, determining the trained manpower needs, present and future, at the national, state and regional, and local levels. Publications are available which predict needs on a nationwide basis; they may be available on a regional basis. Determining the local needs generally requires that a comprehensive community occupational survey of businesses and industries be conducted. Two different approaches could be used in making this survey: (1) a "team of experts" approach in which consultants are hired by several agencies to make an exhaustive study of the community's economy; or (2) a "citizen participation" approach in which local citizens (at least 100 if population exceeds 100,000), under the direction of a trained professional, make the survey. This involves, of course, the determination of survey techniques, public information programs, committee formation, personal visits, follow-ups, and the wide distribution of resulting reports.

This latter "citizen participation" approach is probably more valuable than the "team of experts" approach. It is low in cost, but most importantly, it is the *citizens'* survey for *their* college. Participation and involvement is most important for the successful establishment and continuation of a community-junior college.

Beginning community-junior colleges, it seems, most often offer occupational programs to train personnel to fill positions needed locally. This is understandable, of course, as it seems the surest quickest way to determine a successful program.

There is no reason, however, to consider only local needs in determining the program, for there seems to be no problem of placing community-junior college graduates in positions throughout the country. Mr. Kenneth Skaggs, Coordinator of Service Projects of the American Association of Junior Colleges, has indicated that professional organizations across the country increasingly indicate that the community-junior colleges are recognized as *the* educational institutions to provide post-high school technical programs and thus the institutions to which they (employers) look for employees. There is no problem of finding employment for graduates of occupational programs related to recognized national needs. The problem results when business, industry, and various other employers hire students before their training is completed.

The second facet to identifying specific occupational training courses to be offered at the community-junior college, assessing the capability of the college to provide the programs, requires the following questions to be answered affirmatively before a program is designed: [26:51]

1. Can well-qualified faculty be obtained?
2. Will suitable space for classrooms, laboratories, and shops be available?
3. Can tools, instruments, and specialized equipment of high quality be provided in sufficient quantity?
4. Will the budget permit expenditures for replacement of worn-out and obsolescent equipment?

5. Can coordinating, placement, and guidance services be provided?
6. Are students with the necessary ability and interest available in sufficient numbers?
7. Will all these factors result in a program which will satisfy student and community needs at a reasonable unit cost?

At the present time in planning and discussion, the capability of a community-junior college in Albuquerque to offer certain courses cannot be assessed; however, it is possible to assess, to a small degree, program needs. The following two parts of this section describe identified needs on a nationwide basis and on a local basis. The third part of this section II on Occupational Training Programs then lists suggested programs that could be considered for a community-junior college in Albuquerque. A fourth part follows, entitled "Organization," which deals with a variety of other factors to be considered in the development of the occupational training program.

#### A. MANPOWER NEEDS: NATIONWIDE BASIS.

There are a number of published sources which show, on a nationwide basis, the occupations in which there exists now and through 1975, the need for trained manpower. Program planning personnel of a beginning community-junior college should be well aware of these needs and take them into consideration when deciding what kind of training to offer. Occupational training for nationwide needs may or may not fit well into the local and regional need pattern, but all needs should be considered to enable a community-junior college to provide a well-diversified occupational training program with the assurance that successful graduates will find employment for which they have been trained.

Most groups of people that make predictions about future occupational needs, such as the U.S. Department of Labor or the National Science Foundation, base their predictions on certain assumptions, such as continued high levels of economic activity, continued technological advance, further increases in the complexity of industrial products and processes, continued rapid growth in research and development expenditure, accelerated space program, and continued high levels of defense expenditures. [41:1] Should several of these conditions change dramatically, the nationwide occupational needs would change also.

Information obtained from three major sources (*Occupational Outlook Handbook*, U.S. Department of Labor; *America's Industrial and Occupational Manpower Requirements 1964-1975*, U.S. Department of Labor; and *Scientists, Engineers and Technicians in the 1960's, Requirements and Supply*, by the National Science Foundation) shows that there are a number of meaningful ways to categorize manpower needs. The following are examples:

1. When economic employment is broken into the "goods producing" sector (manufacturing, mining, construction) and the "service produc-

- ing" sector (trade, finance, government, services, transportation and public utilities), the goods sector will decline from having 41% of all jobs in 1964 to 36% of all jobs in 1975; the service producing sector will increase from 59% to 64%.
2. The industrial areas which show the greatest percentage increase of manpower requirements from 1964 to 1975 are government (54%), services (43%) and contract construction (37%). However, the areas which will have the largest number of employees are respectively, manufacturing, trade, and government.
  3. The occupational composition of employment will be different in 1975 than in 1964. The major changes will be in the proportions of professional and technical workers, service workers, and clerical workers, all of which are expected to rise significantly. (Next in line are salesworkers, managers and officials, and craftsmen.)
  4. The white-collar group is expected to increase by two-fifths, thus constituting 48% of all manpower requirements in 1975. The blue-collar group will expand at less than half this rate, and will constitute 34% of the total manpower requirement.
  5. The major conclusion of one of the studies "which takes into account every technological change in American industry that can be identified and makes a careful appraisal of its potential effect on employment, is that the overall demand for less-skilled workers will not decrease over this eleven-year period, although it will decline somewhat as a percentage of the total." [53:3]
  6. Despite rapid mechanization and automation of production processes, the number of skilled and semi-skilled workers are expected to continue to increase; however, "it is expected that our increasingly complex technology generally will require higher levels of skill." [54:360]

More specific information obtained from the three publications concerning areas where trained manpower is and will be needed is given below.

1. In contract construction the emphasis will be in heavy construction and special construction such as air-conditioning and wiring.
2. In manufacturing the main areas of need are in chemicals and allied products, rubber and miscellaneous products, and electrical machinery, equipment and supplies.
3. Labor requirements in retail trade will be greater than in wholesale trade. Technological innovations are expected to limit employment in many occupational groups, but the need for persons operating electronic computers and peripheral equipment should increase, as well as the need for workers to stock, service, and maintain vending machines.
4. The rapidly increasing need for employment in the services area includes a variety of jobs. Persons are needed to fill many positions in hotels, rooming houses, camps and other lodging places (particularly in the areas of recreational facilities). Trained people are also needed



to plan weekend entertainment programs, banquets and other social and civic entertainment needs. These latter positions generally require special training in areas of physical education and management. Other services of increasing demand include business services such as credit reporting and collection agencies; automobile repair; television and other electrical appliance repair; medical and other health services; and educational services.

5. Government employment will greatly increase at the state and local levels. Areas that need trained persons are education, health and hospital care; sanitation; welfare; protective services; airport, parks and recreation areas.

More specific information on projected occupational requirements is given below:

1. In the area of technology, trained persons needed are accountants (to prepare, administer and analyze output of many computer-type systems); chemists (for research and development rather than for routine analysis); draftsmen (as supportive personnel and to do complex design work); engineering and science technicians (for research and development, and to operate and repair new and complex equipment).
2. In the clerical field, which will be the largest group of white-collar workers, employees will be needed as bookkeepers (responsible for full set of books); office machine operators (to handle computer and auxiliary equipment); stenographers, secretaries and typists; and sales workers (particularly for real estate, insurance, and retail stores).
3. In the area of skilled trades, craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers are needed in maintenance, repair and construction, particularly as carpenters and automobile mechanics, but also as airplane mechanics, electricians, and office machine repairmen.

It must be emphasized that "the most rapid gains in the Nation's employment . . . will be in professional, technical, and other white-collar occupations and in skilled occupations." [45:364] The latter three needs, of course, are of particular concern to a community-junior college.

More specifically, personnel, trained at various levels, will be needed in the following areas: government (particularly state and local), services, construction, manufacturing and trade. Trained persons will be needed to fill the following positions: accountant, draftsman, chemist, engineering and science technician, bookkeeper, office machine operator, stenographer and secretary, sales worker, carpenter, automobile mechanic, electrician, office machine repairman, and various construction positions.

#### B. MANPOWER NEEDS: ALBUQUERQUE VICINITY

The most efficient and reliable way to obtain information about manpower needs now and in the future for the Albuquerque area is to conduct

a comprehensive occupational survey of the industrial and business firms in the city.

In lieu of such a survey, however, a number of resources have been explored to obtain some information about occupational needs in Albuquerque. These include the Kirschner Report; reports made by advisory committees for the Technical-Vocational Institute; the 1964 study of occupational needs for vocational and technical education for Albuquerque conducted by New Mexico State University and the Division of Vocational Education, State Department of Education; a study made of the occupational demands in New Mexico for 1967-1968 from information available to the New Mexico State Employment Service; and informal conversations with personnel in various organizations and other knowledgeable persons in the area.

It must be emphasized that this method, by its very nature, results in the existence of many gaps in information needed for determining which specific occupational training programs should be offered at a community-junior college. Of necessity, however, this method has been used simply to obtain some information; when the actual program planning begins, however, there can be no substitute for the extensive occupational survey.

Information obtained about occupational needs is given in the following pages according to source.

#### 1. *Kirschner Report*

Some general relevant conclusions in the Kirschner Report include the following:

- (a) Total employment in Albuquerque is projected to increase almost 300% between 1960 and 2000; it is projected that total employment will increase steadily in excess of projected national increases but less than in the 1940's and 1950's in the Albuquerque area.
- (b) "The sectors of most significant relative and absolute growth are expected to be manufacturing and services." [32:2]
- (c) The three areas of trade, services, and government had the largest percentage distribution of employment in 1960 and are projected to have the largest percentage distribution in 2000 also. Together they make up 70% of the total employment.
- (d) In the area of services, which has an abnormally large share of the total employment in Albuquerque, the greatest needs will be at the professional level (doctors, lawyers, hospital personnel and school personnel) and, of concern to a community-junior college, in the areas of business services and repair.
- (e) A rather substantial increase is projected for manufacturing employment; it ranks fourth among all industry groups in both rate of increase and in number of workers added to employment. No specific industries were mentioned in the Kirschner Report as being marked for employment growth, although mention was made that any of a number of industries could burgeon—electronics, apparel,

scientific instruments, specialized transportation equipment, and fabricated metals.

- (f) It is anticipated that the physical volume of wholesale trade will increase rapidly; also, though, worker productivity has been increasing, thus a smaller volume of employment can handle given volume of business. However, Albuquerque's position as wholesale center for most of the state will attract an increasing number of wholesale outlets, and thus, employees will be needed.

## 2. *Advisory Reports on the Technical-Vocational Institute Program*

These reports specifically suggested six areas in which the Technical-Vocational Institute (T-VI) should consider developing occupational training programs:

- (a) **Food Industry**

Training is needed for all levels of occupation in the food industry: semi-skilled employees, skilled employees, supervisory management and top management personnel.

- (b) **Aircraft Industry**

Training should be available in the areas of airframe and powerplant (machine instruction and airframe work) and skill improvement of mechanics, enabling them to become licensed operators.

- (c) **Child Care Program**

Although compensation for people trained at a level lower than professional is extremely low in Albuquerque, and a survey showed the need for training is not presently significant, it is anticipated that many additional child care centers *may* be developed in the future. Thus, this kind of training could be beneficial to many persons. The committee did not recommend that a full program be developed at this time at T-VI, but a few classes, probably in the evening division, should be implemented.

- (d) **Small Engine Mechanics**

The committee indicated about fifteen businesses in Albuquerque employ approximately 30 mechanics, with high turnover, for maintenance and repair of small engines. Again, a full program was not recommended, but it was suggested that a few relevant courses should be added to the existing automotive mechanics program to enable people to develop the specific skills needed in this area.

- (e) **Diesel Mechanics**

With an annual need of 20-25 mechanics needed in the state, the committee recommended that consideration be given to implementing this program. It was also recommended that courses be started soon in a continual training program for existing mechanics.

- (f) **Plant Maintenance**

Skilled workers are needed in the areas of supervision, plant equipment maintenance, and various types of custodial work and plant care. There is also a need for persons capable of diagnosing

problems for repair or maintenance recommendations. It was recommended that T-VI could probably handle some of this training.

It would be feasible for a community-junior college to consider occupational training in the first two areas mentioned, food industry and aircraft industry.

### 3. *Occupational Needs for Vocational and Technical Education for Albuquerque*

Relevant information from this report includes the following:

- (a) In trade and industry, personnel vacancies, additional personnel needed, and personnel turnover indicates an ultimate need for 12,447 persons in the next five years (through 1970). Positions of greatest need mentioned were general laborers (1131), nurses' aides and orderlies (1029), linemen and servicemen (telephone and telegraph) (953), waiters and waitresses (623), janitors (490), messengers and delivery boys (439), and general automobile mechanics (363).
- (b) In office education, 7,515 persons will be needed. The areas of need are clerk-typists (1682), secretaries (1412), stenographers and typists (1074), general office clerks (1053), bookkeepers and cashiers (421), statistical clerks (311), stock clerks (167) and post office clerks (161).
- (c) In distributive occupations, a need of 3,381 personnel is expected through 1970. The greatest areas of need are salesmen (1054), sales clerks (956), filling station attendants (387), retail managers (236), and routemen (193).
- (d) In home economics, 1,776 persons will be needed during the five-year period. Areas of need are kitchen workers (392), cooks (362), maids and housemen (288), laundry and cleaning workers (129), and sewing machine operators (99).
- (e) Additional information from all areas indicated that many of the firms contacted would definitely hire vocational graduates; however, few would be willing to participate in a cooperative training program.

If the occupational training programs of a community-junior college were directed toward the levels of technician, white-collar worker, and the skilled craftsman, programs that could be offered and which would speak to the needs shown by this study would be in the areas of business (sales, managerial, and office personnel); automobile repair and maintenance, health (nurses' aides and orderlies), electrical technician, and hospitality.

### 4. *Occupational Demand in New Mexico—August, 1967-1968*

This study, covering a 15-month period, June 1967 to August 1968, deals only with requests from employers to the New Mexico State Employment Service throughout the state and from job applicants. The following information is relevant:

- (a) Out of 50,802 job openings reported from employers in the 15-



month period, only 1,569 were reported unfilled at the end of August, 1968. Of that latter number, only 768 were unfilled for lack of qualified applicants. Of that number, 600 were from a single employer recruiting teachers for work outside the state. Thus only 168 job vacancies were listed as unfilled due to lack of qualified applicants at the end of August, 1968. The other four quarterly periods of study yielded unfilled openings in numbers of 256, 407, 308, and 157. Eight occupational classifications occurred in each of the five periods: mechanical engineering; medicine and health; accountants and auditors; secretaries; policemen and detectives, public service; motorized vehicle and engineering equipment mechanics and repairmen; engine, power transmission, and related mechanics and bodymen; transportation equipment.

- (b) Thus, "while there was some limited evidence of a consistent shortage for a relatively few occupational groups, numerically the shortage was small. Overall, sufficient evidence needed to establish definite patterns and trends in shortage occupations did not exist." [52:4]
- (c) The job applicant supply significantly exceeded applicant demand in all categories. At the end of August, 1968, there were some 14,698 individuals registered as seeking employment. (Granted there are some communication difficulties between different state offices which results in less than the maximum utilization of applicant supply.)
- (d) There is evidence to indicate the labor supply is growing; the youth population ratio is the highest in the nation (40% of job seekers during the 15-month study were under 22 years of age); the state unemployment rate in 1967 was exceeded only by three states.
- (e) It is suggested that consideration should be given to providing training in carefully selected occupations, thus making New Mexico more attractive to prospective industries with manpower shortages, and providing persons with employment capabilities for the New Mexico area (if industries developed) or other areas.

While this report definitely concludes there is a labor surplus, the occupational positions consistently mentioned as having slight shortages are those mentioned by a variety of other sources also: health occupations, mechanical engineering, accountants, secretaries, automobile and other transportation mechanics and repairmen. The one occupational shortage specifically mentioned that is *different* from other reports is policemen and detectives, public service.

##### 5. Program Considerations Informally Suggested by Personnel at Various Levels in a Number of Associations

###### (a) Business and Manufacturers' Association

Needs are seen as existing in the skilled trades area and in the retail sales outlets (from managerial positions to unskilled).

(b) New Mexico Retail Association

In general, competent trained personnel are always needed in the general retail-merchandising businesses (particularly in the hardware and dry goods stores). A shortage exists of good salesmen and clerking personnel. (A major contributing factor to this shortage is that people, when first employed, must start at a lower compensation level than they would prefer. They "don't understand the potential" for advancement.)

(c) Association of General Contractors

The need exists for trained competent personnel at supervisory levels and intermediate levels, such as foremen and superintendents, time-keepers, estimators, field accountants, and business and office personnel.

(d) Albuquerque Industrial Development Service

According to personnel in this organization, the crucial shortage is in the blue-collar area—operators, electronic assemblers, lathe operators, printed circuit assemblers and technicians.

It was mentioned that a community-junior college, either actually training people for these kinds of jobs or with the potential to do so, would be a positive influential factor in selling Albuquerque to prospective firms. In addition, an active comprehensive continuing education program would be important to businesses and industries interested in locating in Albuquerque.

(e) Industrial Division, Department of Development, Santa Fe

The need exists for courses on economics for the small business man and for programs on industrial development—industrial relations, real estate, promotion, getting community members involved in industrial promotion.

(f) Albuquerque Public Schools' Personnel

(1) Business Education

There seems to be little need for persons trained as clerk-typists. The need is for secretaries with good shorthand and transcribing skills.

There is a shortage of people trained to handle, at the sub-computer level, data processing equipment, such as a key-punch machine, optical scanner, and proportional spacing machine.

There is a constant cry from the field about the shortage of sales oriented people—even receptionists need some sales training.

A need exists for bookkeepers trained electromechanically. The manual bookkeeping approach is used less and less; rather the bookkeeping process is tied in with the data processing area.

(2) Data Processing

There seem to be a number of firms and organizations in Albuquerque in need of trained persons in the data processing field. The trends, also, seem to indicate that the need will

grow, not only in terms of more industry coming into Albuquerque, but also because of growing educational needs and because many companies are now handling their billing and bookkeeping through such services.

The range of personnel needed is a wide one, from programmers to sorters to equipment repair personnel.

The problem in placing trained people into the job market, of course, as experienced by T-VI, is that many companies are willing to hire only the very top graduates. An occupational survey would be necessary to determine the various levels of trained personnel in data processing who could be utilized in the labor force.

(g) Sandia Laboratories

A number of trained manpower shortages have been identified by Sandia personnel. These include positions in the following areas: machine tools (metal and instrument, tool and die, machine equipment operators); automotive and diesel repair; small machine repair; electronics; civil and design drafting; distributive education (sale of material, transport and handling, sales and stock personnel); hotel, motel, restaurant industry; service station industry; secretarial and business; heavy equipment operators; modern mining activities; health occupations (nurses' aides, registered and practical nurses, laboratory, medical, dental, and X-ray technicians, dental hygienists); and agriculture (sheep shearing, cattle processing, meat packing, stock control).

C. OCCUPATIONAL TRAINING PROGRAMS TO BE CONSIDERED FOR AN ALBUQUERQUE COMMUNITY-JUNIOR COLLEGE.

Having identified general occupational needs on a nationwide basis and some local needs (granted the latter have not yet been identified in a sophisticated comprehensive manner), general suggestions can be made about the occupational training programs that should be considered for implementation in a community-junior college in Albuquerque. These suggestions, of necessity, are made under the unrealistic assumption of a "no program limitation." Naturally, all such programs could not be developed by a newly established community-junior college, but priorities cannot be determined on the grounds of the present existing limited knowledge. Priorities can only be determined after the establishment of the following major criteria:

1. Philosophical beliefs of persons ultimately in control of the development of the community-junior college;
2. Results of a comprehensive community occupational survey;
3. Determination of the community-junior college capabilities;
4. Development of major policy decisions such as tuition structure and admission policy (both of which will determine, in part, who would and/or could participate in opportunities provided by the commu-

nity-junior college); a student-concerned program, industry-concerned program, or a combination of both (will programs be designed primarily to fulfill the needs and abilities of the anticipated student body; or will programs be designed to train people to fulfill the manpower needs of local businesses and industries; or will the programs be designed in an effort to fulfill the needs of both students and industry, with a slight emphasis on one or the other?); the level of program (will all programs be strictly at the technical level, or will vocational training be offered; will only two-year degree programs be offered, or will one-year certificate programs also be offered?); and, the delicate decision that must be made concerning the relationship between the community-junior college and T-VI;

5. Needs and desires of students;
6. Occupational training opportunities offered by other agencies in the community.

With a full awareness of actions that must yet be taken and decisions that have not yet been made, suggestions for occupational training programs are given in the following pages. The grouping of various types of training into "departments" (as well as the titles used) is rather arbitrary. Such organization could be handled a variety of ways and would be determined, of course, by administrators and program developers.

#### 1. *Business Administration*

- (a) Secretarial. This would entail general secretarial training, including typing, shorthand, the use of dictating machines, and general office routine; or it could be more sophisticated in terms of training executive secretaries, legal secretaries, medical secretaries.
- (b) Bookkeeping. General hand bookkeeping should not be taught, but more technologically-oriented accounting methods should be taught which could include perhaps business data programming, but certainly should include the handling of a variety of data processing related equipment, at a subcomputer level.
- (c) Clerical. Training should not be limited to teaching sub-secretarial skills, such as filing and reception work; orientation should be toward office machine equipment, sales, or data processing equipment.
- (d) Business Management and/or Merchandising. This could include a wide variety of training in areas as sales, purchasing, advertising, credit and collections, store management, and inventory control. A cooperating training program would work well here so students would get on-the-job experience. The program also could include accounting, business law, retailing, marketing. It would be worthwhile to consider developing a business retail and merchandise laboratory as exists at Orange Coast College in Costa Mesa, California. Their learning laboratory specializes in men and women's clothing, sells only to students and faculty, gives good work experience to students in the program, and realizes a small profit.



- (e) Office Machinery. Training could entail teaching students the use of a wide variety of office machines; it might be feasible also to teach the repair of such office machines.

## 2. *Building-Construction Technology*

Training in the area of construction could involve limited instruction (which would include such areas as materials of construction, practices, estimating, and construction trades management), or it could develop into a comprehensive program to include such things as training in air-conditioning technology, bricklaying, cabinet work, metalwork, carpentry, painting and decorating, operation and maintenance, plumbing, sheet metal, refrigeration and air conditioning. It may be possible to develop the program to the degree enjoyed at Orange Coast College in Costa Mesa, California, where several campus buildings have been designed by architectural students and built by students in the construction program.

## 3. *Electrical-Electronic Technology*

A wide variety of training programs could exist in this area, representing a number of different levels of training. These could range from electrical motor repair, electrical construction and maintenance, radio communications and precision instruments calibration to radar systems, electronic tubes, semiconductors, solid state circuitry, and miniaturization.

## 4. *Drafting and Design Technology*

Training for creative drafting can be provided as well as training on a lower level.

## 5. *Data Processing*

Again, a variety of levels of training can be provided, depending upon the identified needs of students and business firms. Persons could be trained for computer programming, application of data processing equipment in business and related fields, and systems analysis and design. There may also be the need to train persons at a subcomputer level, such as card sorter or key-punch operator, or for equipment repair.

## 6. *Hotel-Motel-Restaurant Management*

Again, a wide variety of training for various occupational positions could be provided. This could include training for desk clerks, chefs and waitresses, as well as training for management positions. It could also include commercial baking, institutional cooking, and home catering.

In connection with this program, the possibility should be considered of establishing such facilities as dining hall, cafeteria, coffee shop, and an area which could be used for banquets. These facilities would allow the necessary laboratory training needed for a comprehensive program. In addition, although this would be expensive initially to develop, these

facilities would provide a way for the program eventually to "pay its own way." A place would be available for faculty, staff and students to eat, as well as providing an area which could be made available, at a price, to community groups for banquets and other such activities.

#### *7. Health Occupations*

Positions for which training in the health occupations could be provided would include nurses' aides and orderlies, registered and practical nurses, lab technicians, medical technicians, dental technicians and hygienists, X-ray technicians, electrocardiogram technicians, and psychiatric technicians.

It might be desirable to develop a program similar to the Allied Health Program offered in the Chicago City College. All students initially take a core program, about a semester in length. This program includes Introduction to Health Occupations, Basic Service Concepts for Allied Health Workers, Basic Medical Concepts, Nursing Arts, English for Allied Health Workers, and Communications for Allied Health Workers.

The second part of the program, the Clinical Program, also a semester in length, is then available for students who successfully complete the core program. This training takes eight hours a day, five days a week, in a cooperating health facility. Clinical programs are available in the following areas: Community Health Aide, Corrective Therapy Aide, Dental Health Aide, Inhalation Therapy Aide, Occupational Therapy Aide, Physical Therapy Aide, Recreational Therapy Aide, Transfusion Therapy Aide, Ward Clerk, Pharmacy Aide, and Psychiatric Aide.

The type of clinical programs available for a similar program in Albuquerque, of course, would be dependent upon which health facilities would cooperate and what their needs were.

#### *8. Automotive Technology*

Because of the needs that pertain to the entire automobile industry, a variety of kinds and levels of training could be provided in this area. Motor and auto body repair, diesel motor and truck repair, as well as the fundamentals of dealer and service management, manufacturer and engineering problems and operation could be covered.

9. A number of other general areas that could be considered for programs could be aircraft technology, small machine repair, machine tools related to manufacturing, finance and insurance, metal technology, public service, commercial art, recreational leadership and chemical technology.

There are a variety of other kinds of programs which might be feasible for an area such as Albuquerque. These programs are ones that exist in some form in community-junior colleges around the nation. They should be considered because they have been successful in other large cities and because such programs are rather unique to community-junior colleges and have had a significant impact in the development of community-junior colleges around the country.

1. Chicago City College has a program entitled *Public Service Institute*; its purpose as stated in the fall 1968 *Chicago City College Course Offerings in Occupational Education* catalog is as follows:

The Public Service Institute makes available to government agencies in the Chicago metropolitan area the educational facilities already in existence in the college, and explores with these agencies the possibility of establishing programs for upgrading civil servants and preparing men and women for careers in the public service.

Its purpose is to develop and administer two-year programs leading to careers in the public service; to provide employees already working in government agencies with opportunities to update and upgrade their skills and to prepare them for better positions within their agencies; and to conduct necessary research for curriculum development and, more generally, to investigate the potential role of two-year colleges in education for public service.

Courses offered in the *Public Service Institute* are in the following areas: humanities, architecture, engineering, civil technology, business, data processing, mathematics, microbiology, child development, law enforcement, English, reading, speech, political science, sociology, and psychology.

Any program developed similar to the *Institute* would provide courses to fill needs identified by the various governmental agencies. It might be feasible for a community-junior college in Albuquerque to offer continuing education courses initially rather than a full program, if it seemed valuable to consider development of a program like the *Public Service Institute*.

2. Another program which should be given serious consideration is that of Law Enforcement or "Police Science." Prior to any course development of such a program, however, extensive discussions should be held with top level police personnel to determine the usefulness, desirability, and direction of a program. It may need to start as a continuing education program, with courses offered to upgrade positions of persons presently employed by the police department.

Over 300 community-junior colleges in the United States, particularly in urban centers, have developed law enforcement programs. The need and desirability of such programs is exemplified, at the national level, by two movements. [50:44-46] The International Association of Chiefs of Police has consultants available to help community-junior colleges organize a law enforcement program and develop the curriculum. (This is possible by a grant from the Ford Foundation.) In addition, the Office of Law Enforcement Assistance of the U.S. Justice Department now offers development grants to colleges initiating programs in police science.

Course offerings in a police science program could include many of the following: introduction to law enforcement, development of con-

temporary America police system, criminal law, criminal evidence, administration, patrol procedures, issues in law enforcement, police-community relations, traffic control, juvenile procedures, defensive tactics, firearms, first aid.

3. In connection with the police science program, a program offering training in correctional administration could be developed. This could offer experience in prison administration and/or probation work. Training could be for prison security officials, policewomen, or police juvenile officers.
4. A number of community-junior colleges have developed programs in recreational leadership. There is an increasing demand nationwide for experienced persons able to direct and supervise recreational activities in parks, playgrounds, and public recreational areas.
5. A wide range of course offerings would be possible under a program of Home and Family Living. This program could include such courses as child care and development, a "cradle to grave" range of courses including all aspects of home life, clothing and furniture upholstery.
6. It might be possible and desirable to develop an apprentice department like one offered by the Los Angeles Trade and Technical College. This program involves youth selected and indentured to learn a trade under state agreement which requires attending school for the period of indentureship. Their offerings cover a wide variety of training which include fire control, intercommunications and sound, landscape gardening, lithography, refrigerator and air conditioning, sheet metal, welding, gas and electricity.

#### D. ORGANIZATION

There are a number of organizational matters, of significant importance to the occupational training program, which need to be briefly mentioned here and considered seriously and extensively when program planning takes place.

##### 1. *Leadership*

It is vitally important to the success of the occupational training program, as well as to the success of the total community-junior college program, that the occupational program be placed on an equal level with and provided the same high quality leadership as the academic affairs program. Under no circumstances can placing the dean of the occupational training program under the dean of the academic affairs program be justified.

Responsibility may be divided by having a dean of applied arts and a dean of liberal arts, or a dean of occupational education and a dean of academic studies. [26:52] However it is accomplished, the person in charge of the occupational training program must have direct line responsibility to the president of the college. (It is assumed, of course, that



the person chosen as president of the community-junior college will be totally dedicated to the need for comprehensive occupational training in the community-junior college.)

## 2. Faculty

[There is a] necessity to establish conditions of faculty service in a manner which will not discriminate against instructors in occupational fields. The typical degree-and-college-credit-based salary schedules will have to be modified to recognize other qualifications which contribute to professional teaching. Faculty rank plans and paths to promotion will also have to be adjusted so that teachers whose performance merits it can move up through the professional and salary ranks without regard to degrees and/or college credits. And, provision will have to be made to "hire in" at rank and salary levels commensurate with the attainment and reputation for excellence of those persons entering teaching from other fields of endeavor. These changes will not be easily brought about, largely because of resistance from the academic "types" on college faculties; but until we do make significant progress on these matters we shall remain in the ridiculous position of trying to recruit experienced engineers for the engineering technology faculty at salaries which are the going rate for new graduates of two-year technical programs. [13:58]

One of the major concerns about the community-junior college is that it has not taken its place fully within the realm of higher education as it should. In some places this has become critical where the faculty is concerned. Mr. Samuel B. Gould, Chancellor of the State University in New York, has stated concisely what needs to be done:

To take their rightful places as part of the spectrum of higher education the community colleges must structure themselves accordingly. They must take on the characteristics of colleges generally in the way they conduct themselves, in the way they recruit faculties and retain them, in the salary schedules they adopt, in the conditions of work they establish—in other words, characteristics relating to faculty that insure the same independence and dignity of profession that other institutions of higher learning find absolutely indispensable. Only in that way can they hope to attract faculty of quality. [24:5]

## 3. Advisory Committees

It is essential that advisory committees made up primarily of local businessmen and industrial personnel, but also including educators and other interested and knowledgeable persons, be formed, *in the beginning*, to function for all occupational training programs given. These committees perform several essential functions: they aid in maintaining acceptable standards in curriculum, equipment, and training; they serve as interpreters to the community; and they are a necessary ingredient

for employment of graduates. They may help also in bond elections, provide scholarships, and generally help the college to create a good image.

In the Los Angeles Junior College District, where all programs have their own advisory committees, "before any program is started in a new occupational area an advisory committee is established to aid in gathering data, verifying the need, and exploring community support." [13:28]

#### 4. *Program Organization*

There are a number of ways occupational training programs may be organized. It seems that most community-junior colleges, to meet the needs and capabilities of all students, generally offer two kinds of occupational training programs. One is the two-year program with an Associate Degree awarded upon successful completion of the program. Under this two-year curriculum organization would come such programs as the drafting and design technology, electrical-electronic technology, business management, data processing, police science, hotel-motel-restaurant management, and executive secretarial science.

For those students with different desires, needs, and abilities, a one-year curriculum would be available which leads to a Certificate of Proficiency award upon successful completion. Under this plan would be programs which train persons for clerical positions, nurses' aides, and other vocational positions.

Occupational training programs may be organized also on a cooperative basis with the student spending part of his time in the classroom-laboratory and part of his training time on the job.

Unit courses may also be offered, for any length of time, dependent upon needs.

#### 5. *Vocational Programs*

These programs are often organized upon the basis of clock hours spent in the classroom or laboratory and upon tested levels of proficiency because some states have specific clock-hour requirements for licensing of some occupations. [2:221] Thus before any vocational program is developed, state requirements for the licensing of persons in that occupation should be determined.

#### 6. *Technical Programs*

It is essential that, in the beginning, a differentiation be made between courses offered on the technical level and the engineering level.

To be sure, engineering technician curriculums must include, at the sophomore level, applied calculus and certain other intermediate mathematics courses; and courses in physics, chemistry, mechanics, and electronics whose rigor approaches that of engineering courses; but students of middle-level abilities have to be brought up to these courses gradually after a freshman year devoted to solid groundwork in technical-level mathematics and

technical physics. The scope and sequence of these basic courses must be carefully planned, and preferably they should be taught by instructors with an engineering or applications approach rather than by instructors possessed by the "chemistry is chemistry" syndrome.

And most important, community colleges should provide two different levels of curriculums in the technologies, ranging from the engineering technologies across the spectrum to the industrial or highly skilled technologies, in order to accommodate the needs of business and industry and also the abilities and interests of students of middle-level academic potential. Exactly the same line of reasoning applies to business fields, the health technologies, and curriculum in public service. [13:51-52]

#### 7. Curriculum—Occupational Courses

The following list of items contains factors to be remembered and/or implemented in considering curriculum development for the occupational training program. [2:217-218]

- (a) The curriculum must be related closely to the requirements for skills, knowledges, and understandings of the occupation or group of occupations.
- (b) The curriculum must be developed with the advice, counsel, and support of an industry or a profession.
- (c) A curriculum must be sensitive to occupational changes and should not be too specialized.
- (d) Neither the traditional lower division university curriculum nor the usual vocational-industrial curriculum is adequate in content or objective.
- (e) Nature, content, methods of instruction, and purposes of a technical curriculum should seldom, if ever, exactly follow lower division preprofessional curriculum patterns. Lower division engineering courses, by themselves, do not constitute adequate preparation for the technician.
- (f) The curriculum should be primarily occupation-centered. Transfer value should be of secondary importance. The technical curricula should be designed and conducted as ends in themselves.
- (g) Depending upon the level of the technical program, traditional academic organization of mathematics and science courses may not be realistic. Depth and scope of mathematics and science must be tailored to occupational needs. These courses must have problem-solving objectives and should place less emphasis on abstract concepts than traditional academic courses do.
- (h) Achievement levels and content should be based on job requirements rather than on a specified number of units and courses.
- (i) Craft shops and tools are needed to provide experience on practical problems. Laboratories are also needed for testing, research, and experiments.

- (j) Community leaders must share responsibility with educators for identifying manpower needs and planning programs to meet them.
- (k) The increasing number of part-time and evening students must be accommodated.
- (l) Technical programs will cost more than college-parallel programs because they require more laboratory hours, a lower students-to-instructor ratio, and more expensive equipment and facilities.

#### 8. Curriculum—General Education Core

One of the major policy decisions relating to the occupational training program that will need to be made is whether to require students in these programs to take a general education core curriculum as part of their requirement for occupational training, or to take only the specific occupational courses.

A current comprehensive study, released by the American Association of Junior Colleges in December of 1968, shows that community-junior colleges across the nation are developing their occupational training programs generally in two distinct directions. Which direction a community-junior college takes is purely a matter of local choice. No judgments have been made about either program.

One direction followed by some colleges is to provide a basic general education core that is no different from the program taken by academic affairs students. The belief behind the use of this approach is that there are basic general courses that *all* students need for intelligent living; therefore *all* students should take these courses. Under this philosophy, there would be no different general education core curriculum per se; all students would take the academic affairs basic general education courses.

Another direction taken by some community-junior colleges is to develop a core of general education courses specifically designed for and taken by all occupational students. Since these students do not plan on continuing an academic education after completing their occupational training, they do not need courses designed for continued advanced academic work. However, they do need basic math, science, English, etc. They, then, will take courses in these subjects which have been designed to relate to their specific occupations.

Community-junior colleges that offer a general education core program based on either of these two methods encounter a similar problem: occupational students often believe that such general education courses are wasteful to them, taking up time and energy which they feel could be better spent in courses more directly related to their occupational training.

A third method used by some community-junior colleges is not to require any general education curriculum courses of the occupational training students. It has been emphasized by a great number of community-junior college educators, however, that a general education curriculum must be stressed among *all* students primarily for its funda-



mental function of stimulating individual growth in all areas. These educators maintain that it is this ingredient which makes the occupational training program in a community-junior college different from the programs offered at a technical institute or a business college. [15:306]

Most of the colleges which require the general education core curriculum of occupational training students include the following courses in the curriculum: history, English, humanities, psychology or sociology, and physical education. Political science and/or economics may also be required.

If a general education core curriculum is to be required, it will probably be necessary to offer also some type of developmental or foundation program for many students who lack the background or ability to be successful in the core curriculum. This developmental program might include some basic math, English, social science and/or physical science. Reading improvement probably will need to be a part of the program. In addition, special counseling will need to be available to these students as well as the opportunity to take some elementary courses in a tentative major field.

Upon successful completion of this developmental program, the student could proceed to the regular core curriculum and, hopefully, into a specialized occupational training program. If the student is unable to continue to the core curriculum, he may be able to proceed to a short-term non-degree certificate program if such offerings are provided.

A possible curriculum plan, developed by Norman C. Harris, Center for the Study of Higher Education, The University of Michigan, which shows the relationship of these programs is shown on the following page. This, of course, is only one example of the way curriculum planning can be organized.

#### 9. Admission

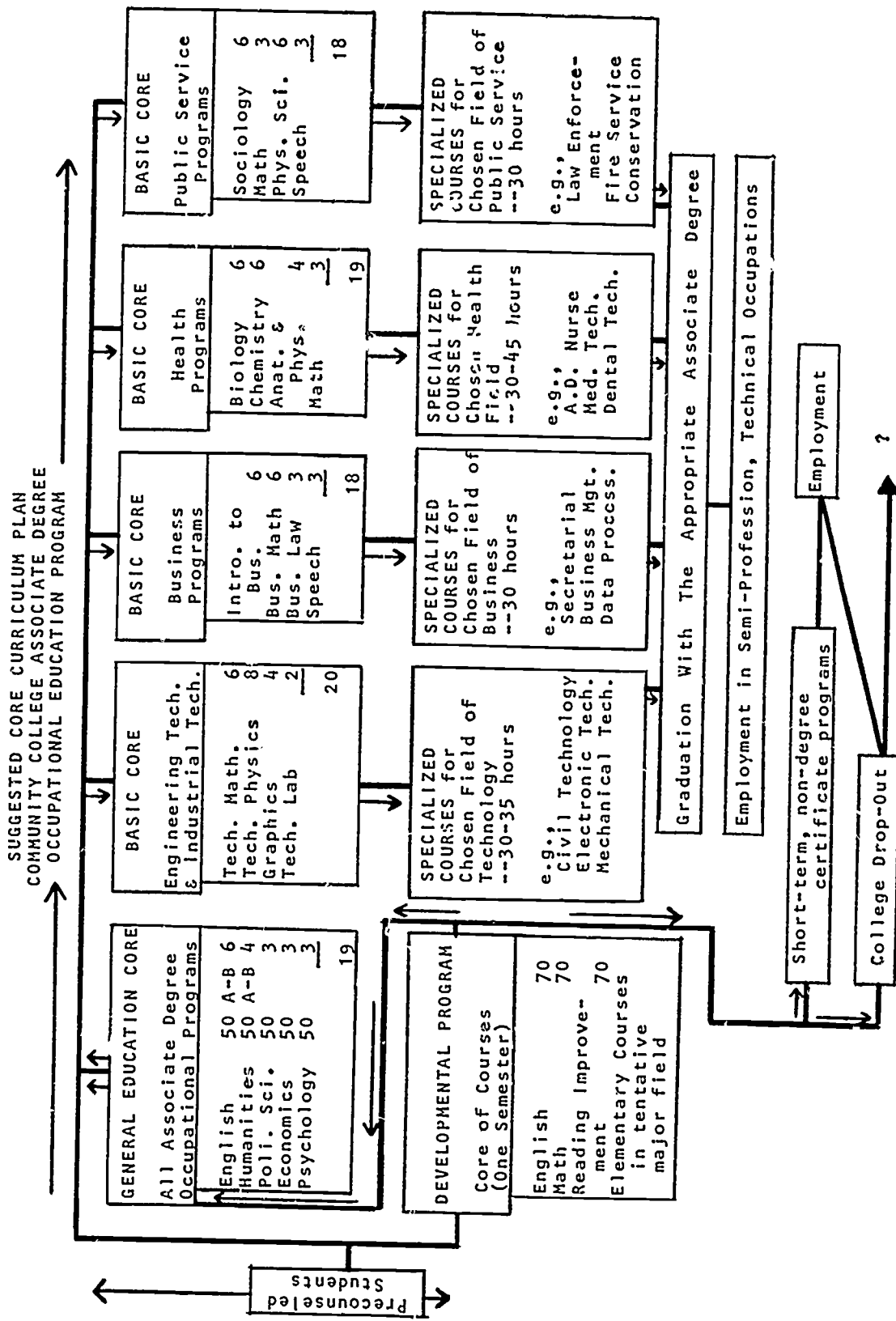
It is recommended by many community-junior college educators that admission be selective in the occupational training program as well as the academic affairs program. [2:210] How the college handles this policy-level decision will depend, of course, upon the competency of the student personnel staff and the scope of any preparatory-remedial program.

#### 10. Course Labeling

It is strongly suggested that in the published catalog courses not be labeled "terminal" or "not for college credit." [2:209] This seems a minor point, but in reality, such technical matters often determine a student's choice. If adequate student counseling and guidance is provided, students can be informed of such facts in a less blatant manner.

### III. GENERAL EDUCATION PROGRAM

The General Education Program is organized a number of different ways for a variety of purposes in the various community-junior colleges. In essence, however, general education is in contrast to specific education



in that general education is education for living rather than education for making a living. The purpose of general education should be immediate, nontechnical, nonvocational. [48:30]

The courses under the General Education Program are generally in the same academic discipline areas as the affairs courses: English, social sciences, natural sciences, math, and the humanities. Occasionally courses in the fine arts are required, and usually physical education courses are required. [48:29] All these courses should be ones for which transfer credit is given.

It can be seen that only a very thin line might exist between these general education courses and the academic affairs courses. In essence, "the distinction is found in the purpose to which the education is to be put." [48:32] As was mentioned earlier, the purpose of the general education courses is immediate, nonvocational; the purpose of the academic affairs courses is a rather delayed one—the courses are prerequisites to more advanced courses related to specific professional areas.

It is in curriculum development and teaching that the distinction between education courses and academic affairs courses should be easily shown. For it is here that the emphasis is shifted "from preparation for advanced-level courses in the same academic field to an emphasis on learning for the sake of immediate, nontechnical, nonspecialized use." [48:30] For this distinction to be made real, then, it may be necessary for two different groups of the same courses to be offered—one in the General Education Program and one in the Academic Affairs Program.

Many students participating in the General Education Program will seek information in the areas of consumer education, marriage and family life, income tax principles, etc. Such courses should be available, on an elective basis, for students. Basic courses in some of the occupational training areas should be available to these students also. However, if the general education courses are separate from the academic affairs courses, the content of such special courses may fit into the properly structured General Education Program.

The policy level decisions that must be made in regard to the General Education Program are several and very important. Do academic affairs students and general education students take the identical courses? Must all students take general education courses for graduation or will deviations from these requirements be permitted? Is it necessary, as many educators suggest, that all divisions within the college be "strongly laced with general education courses appropriate to the talent level of the student?" [2:212]

Answers to these questions, of course, will determine the degree of comprehensiveness of the student body in General Education Program as well as the requirements needed for instructors in the program.

#### IV. CONTINUING EDUCATION PROGRAM

Courses offered in the Continuing Education Program are generally determined by two methods. One method is to identify specific needs and

interests of community members and plan courses accordingly. (Often this cannot be done, however, until a community-junior college has been established and contacts are made between community-junior college personnel, businesses and industry in the area, and community members.)

The second method used is to plan courses directly related to occupational areas in which full training program development is anticipated. Particularly when a community-junior college is initially being established, continuing education courses may precede the full development of a program; a few courses would be developed and offered to people employed on a full-time basis. These courses could be in occupational areas determined by community-junior college personnel and professional people in the field. The development of a full program in the occupational area, then, may well be determined by the results of the courses offered to on-the-job people. (This second method has been used by many community-junior colleges in the areas of law enforcement and nursing in particular.)

There are several advantages to this latter method of offering courses and developing programs. A community-junior college on a limited budget and with limited facilities cannot afford to develop a full occupational training program without a guarantee of students to fill the program, adequate and sufficient equipment, a complete course offering, and a satisfactory guarantee of the successful placement of graduating students in jobs. By starting with a few courses, however, a community-junior college can usually then determine the realistic need for the program, from the standpoint of both students and industry.

In addition to other courses, the Continuing Education Program should provide community members the opportunity to take initial training in preparation for new occupations, refresher courses in chosen occupational fields, and the opportunity to develop additional skills required for advancement within a chosen occupation.

It can be seen, then, that specific recommendations for continuing education course offerings cannot be made until other decisions are made concerning desired occupational training programs to be offered and until contacts are made between various groups of people to determine interests and needs. Examples of the types of courses that might be offered, however, are the following: welding, electrical instrument circuitry, engine tune-up, accident investigation (police science), custodial workshop, photography, physical conditioning for men/women, personal income tax accounting, and consumer education.

## V. COMMUNITY SERVICES

Prior to the establishment of a community-junior college and the designation of one or more persons responsible for the development of program, no specific recommendations can be made about community services that should or could be offered by a community-junior college in Albuquerque. Preliminary steps that should be taken, however, include designation of staff personnel, provision of facilities, and the creation of a broad



awareness of the need for a strong community service program. The responsibility of staff personnel would be to develop and put into effect immediately a plan for establishing a continual contact with community members in order to develop programs and activities wanted and/or needed by community members.

Admission to community service activities should be unrestricted. No credit could be given, but a type of certificate may be issued as recognition of the work completed.

For a community-junior college oriented to the needs of the community, program opportunities are abundant, limited only by a lack of imagination on the part of the staff personnel. A few examples of what can be done and what has been done are in order to show the scope and depth of the existing possibilities:

1. El Camino College in California conducts lecture series; sponsors concerts; allows its recreational facilities to be open to the public on a year-round basis (swimming instruction is given in the summer); and sponsors "Insight," a program which features forums and seminars in areas of current interest, such as Viet Nam.
2. Clatsop Community College in Astoria, Pennsylvania, has developed a three-year demonstration project, co-directed by the state public welfare office, which is designed to enhance the employability of welfare recipients. The project, funded by Title 1115 of the Social Security Act, uses specially trained counselors and caseworkers in addition to the regular college staff.

Extra demands are made on the college staff and administration because some of the recipients require special tutoring and remedial coursework; a flexible curriculum choice is provided; individual and group counseling is essential. In addition, it was discovered that "day care, transportation, tuition, books and supplies, medical examinations, and medical service are but a few of the factors in providing education for the welfare recipient." [11:74]
3. Pasadena City College in California offers short courses, lectures, and forums in 65 different locations. One course is uniquely geared to wives of prisoners.
4. Curriculum changes for fifth and sixth graders in the public schools resulted from a forum on the illegal drug traffic sponsored by Cerritos College in California.
5. Foothill Junior College in California sponsored a week long nature study field trip for interested persons; performing groups have been developed also within the college—symphony, symphonic choir, and chamber ensemble.
6. Essex Community College in Maryland has an extensive program of community workshops and seminars to provide information and education about local government, planning renewal, community organization, etc.

7. Other community services by community colleges include the establishment of museums, art centers, children's theaters, planetariums, and theaters/auditoriums; the development of free counseling and placement service for those who need additional income; and in-service training for building inspectors, dietary aides, nurses' aides, and municipal employers.
8. An example of community services that can be provided is described in an article in the *Junior College Journal*. [19:9] Out of a concern to meet the needs of the disadvantaged youth, especially between the ages of 16 and 21, during the summer months, the following program suggestions were made by Dorothy Knoell of the American Association of Junior Colleges' staff:
  - (a) Provide an occupational orientation-experience program for junior and senior high school youth, which would take advantage of the college's facilities and staff in occupational education, particularly in the technical areas. The campus-based program could include counseling and testing to find aptitudes and interests, "exposure" to laboratories for the occupational programs and use of the equipment, discussions with successful workers in the several occupations (especially minority group members from backgrounds similar to those of the youth), basic education, and "internships" in occupational areas in which the college offers programs.
  - (b) Organize teams composed of "target" youth groups, disadvantaged students of the community college, subprofessionals, and college staff members. The teams could select projects for community services and set goals, plan a course of action, establish their own organization, obtain appropriate assistance from the college as needed, carry out their project, and evaluate the results. (Projects could be in areas of cleanup, construction, instruction, or human services to those less well off than the participating youth.)
  - (c) Develop recreation projects which would utilize the staff, facilities, and equipment of the college. Again, the team approach could be used. Persons would be paid; beneficiaries would be expected to be children not yet in their teens in poverty neighborhoods.

These are only examples of the kinds of community services that can be offered, but it is apparent there is no limit to the areas that can be explored.

Through imaginative programs of community services, community colleges are beginning to assume their natural role as a catalytic force—providing the leadership, coordination, and cooperation necessary to stimulate action programs by appropriate individuals and groups within the community. The reciprocal relationship between the community and the community college is such that the community college both reflects and effects changes in the structure of its community, and the life patterns of its residents.

More and more, the community college is inserting into the life stream of its people forces that can change, revise, unify, and stimulate the individual, the organization, and ultimately, the tone of mind of the entire community. [25:17]

## VI. STUDENT PERSONNEL PROGRAM

The open door policy . . . symbolizes the democratic principle of educational opportunity for all. When a [community-junior] college invites all, or nearly all, to partake of its offerings, it obligates itself to provide something of value for everyone who enters. . . . A significant part of this value is the fundamental respect it holds for the dignity and worth of each student. The . . . [community-junior] college as a "student centered" institution gives priority to the student personnel function. [51:1]

Of vital importance to a successful community-junior college program is the establishment of a comprehensive, professionally-staffed Student Personnel Program which should include the following services: [4:13-15]

Orientation: precollege information, student induction, group orientation, career information.

Appraisal: personnel records, educational testing, applicant appraisal.

Consultation: student counseling, student guidance, applicant consulting.

Participation: co-curricular activities, student self-government.

Regulation: student registration, academic regulation, social regulation

Service: financial aids, placement and follow-up, developmental.

Organization: program articulation, in-service education, research and program evaluation, administrative organization.

Though educators generally agree that all these services should be available in a community-junior college, few colleges actually have such a comprehensive Student Personnel Program.

In 1963-65 a nationwide survey of the student personnel programs in community-junior colleges across the nation was made under the sponsorship of the American Association of Junior Colleges with financial support from the Carnegie Corporation of New York. The results showed that, of all the programs in the community-junior college, this program, while perhaps most important, is the least effective. This ineffectiveness seems to be due to the fact that these services, if performed at all, are performed inadequately. [4:22] Extensive efforts, of course, are being made to upgrade student personnel services in existing community-junior colleges and to have newly establishing community-junior colleges begin with comprehensive student personnel services.

While general upgrading is needed for most of the services under the Student Personnel Program, several of the services seem to be rather

easily and adequately handled by most community-junior colleges, such as participation (co-curricular activities and student self-government) and regulation (student registration, academic regulation and social regulation). A few other activities are often handled relatively adequately, such as student induction and group orientation, personnel records and applicant appraisal, financial aids, and administrative organization. The various other activities seem to be poorly handled by the Student Personnel Program and yet are probably the most important functions of the program in community-junior colleges.

The orientation services of providing precollege and career information to prospective and identified students are important ones, yet handled inadequately. Precollege information generally reaches the hands of students in printed form during registration and perhaps before; such information may or may not be read. This information should reach as many prospective students as possible prior to registration; procedures should be developed to assure dissemination of such information to all high schools in the area served by the community-junior college.

An even more vital service than providing precollege information is the dissemination of career information to prospective students; this could be coordinated with program articulation. Attempts must be made to inform prospective students of the wide variety of career possibilities, of positions generally available in the local area and throughout the nation, of realistic careers related to their specific interests and abilities, of the variety of opportunities within certain career areas, and of the degree of training needed and salary ranges available within the career areas. Articulation must take place with appropriate public school personnel and parents to insure the wide dissemination of this information.

Prior public school academic records and test results cannot stand alone in determining the abilities of community-junior college students. Because of the nature of the open-door policy, many students will enroll in the community-junior college with poor academic records and low test scores. This does not mean, of course, that these students cannot benefit from some program in the community-junior college. Extensive educational testing must be provided to insure these students every chance to find a program in which they can be successful.

Also because of the open-door policy which determines in large part the uniqueness of community-junior colleges, the consultation services (student counseling, student guidance, applicant consulting) play the single most important role in aiding the student to choose and accept an appropriate program designed to fulfill his needs, interests, and abilities. When past experiences of community-junior colleges across the country show that a large number of entrants choose the academic affairs transfer program and yet only a small percentage actually transfer, then it is rather obvious that the guidance function is being handled inadequately. An adequate number of qualified and experienced counselors must be maintained on the community-junior college staff, and attempts must be made continually to have students take advantage of these services.



Responsibility should be designated to at least one individual on the Student Personnel Program staff to handle the placement services provided by the community-junior college. This person simply cannot accept calls from employers about prospective graduates in the occupational training program, but must actively seek job positions for *all* successful graduates in the various programs. Efforts must be made to inform all firms in the area about the kinds of training offered at the college and the students available for employment. Care must be taken to see that students are not employed prior to graduation or the purpose for providing training will be defeated. If positions are not available locally, information should be given to students about and contracts made with other firms where graduating students could be employed. The success or failure of the occupational training programs may depend upon successful employment of graduates.

In addition to providing placement services, systematic follow-up procedures should be adopted to determine the actual employment of graduates. The results of such procedures may determine necessary program changes to insure more adequate placement of students. Follow-up studies should also be made on transfer students to determine the adequacy of the academic affairs programs.

Another essential facet of the community-junior college program should be developmental services for those students with deficiencies in any of a number of academic areas. (It may be decided that this service could best be provided within the instructional program rather than the Student Personnel Program. It is only necessary that the function itself be provided.) The overall community-junior college experience has been that a significant number of students need initially some type of remedial or preparatory work in order to successfully handle the other programs. A community-junior college cannot be comprehensive and open-door without providing this service.

Another service which should be provided by the Student Personnel Program is program articulation. This service is necessary to insure dissemination of information about the opportunities available for persons at the community-junior college and to insure the acceptance by other four-year colleges and universities of students from the college and their completed course work. It is evident from many sources that this function could take up most of the time of one full-time staff member.

Because of the comprehensiveness of the community-junior college program, the usual lack of funds to provide additional off-campus training to faculty members, and the demands on the time of the faculty members as well as the demands for additional training because of technological advances and the ever-changing requirements, in-service education must be provided for faculty members, particularly for those whose responsibilities are in occupational training areas.

Built-in procedures, from the beginning, for continual research and program evaluation should take place to insure that the curriculum, equipment, and techniques are equal to the standards maintained in business

and industry, so that students will not be trained for obsolete jobs. Properly functioning advisory committees can play a most significant role in this procedure. Continuing efforts should be made also to determine additional courses and programs that could be implemented.

The key, of course, to the performance of all these needed services is the staff of the Student Personnel Program. If the staff members are provided, the functions will be performed. And, the higher the level of professional ability of the staff, the more professionally the functions will be performed.

As an example of the level of staffing needed for an adequate Student Personnel Program, it is suggested, for a community-junior college of 5,000 students, that the following staffing pattern be implemented: [4:35] Five persons should make up the administrative level alone of the Student Personnel Program. The top administrator (dean or vice-president) should report directly to the superintendent or president of the community-junior college. (His total staff should include three persons.) Under this person should be four other administrative personnel: one in charge of admissions and records (with a total staff of eleven—eight clerical); one in charge of counseling and guidance (with a total staff of 24—16 to be professional counselors); one in charge of student activities (with a total staff of five); and one in charge of special personnel services (with a total staff of four). It is suggested that all these people have Masters' degrees, if not doctorates. The top administrator, of course, should have a doctorate in behavioral sciences, or in student personnel, and should have had previous community-junior college experience.

It has been recommended by at least one task force that a *minimum* expenditure of 12 to 15 per cent of the total instructional budget is necessary to implement the various functions that should be provided by the Student Personnel Program. [51:19]

## VII. CONCLUSION

All of the six program areas which have been described in some detail in the preceding pages are essential ingredients for any comprehensive community-junior college; they are necessary for a community-junior college in Albuquerque.

It must be emphasized again that many policy decisions must be made and courses of action taken before the specific programs of a community-junior college in Albuquerque could be determined; the purpose of this section is to give a general idea about the size and scope of a community-junior college program that would be feasible for Albuquerque.

## APPENDIX I

### TWO-YEAR COLLEGES IN THE UNITED STATES\*

State	Public Colleges	Private Colleges	Total Number of Colleges
Alabama	15	5	20
Alaska	6	1	7
Arizona	6	0	6
Arkansas	3	4	7
California	83	4	87
Colorado	11	0	11
Connecticut	11	9	20
Delaware	1	2	3
District of Columbia	0	3	3
Florida	26	5	31
Georgia	12	10	22
Hawaii	4	1	5
Idaho	3	2	5
Illinois	34	12	46
Indiana	1	2	3
Iowa	24	6	30
Kansas	16	5	21
Kentucky	11	7	18
Louisiana	1	0	1
Maine	0	2	2
Maryland	12	7	19
Massachusetts	14	16	30
Michigan	24	4	28
Minnesota	17	5	22
Mississippi	19	8	27
Missouri	12	9	21
Montana	3	0	3
Nebraska	6	1	7
Nevada	1	0	1
New Hampshire	1	4	5
New Jersey	6	11	17
New Mexico	6	0	6
New York	36	28	64
North Carolina	31	13	44
North Dakota	4	2	6
Ohio	7	2	9
Oklahoma	12	4	16
Oregon	12	3	15
Pennsylvania	32	16	48
Rhode Island	1	2	3
South Carolina	8	5	13
South Dakota	0	3	3
Tennessee	5	7	12

\*Taken from American Association of Junior Colleges, 1968 *Junior College Directory*.  
Washington: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1968, p. 68.

APPENDIX I (continued)

<i>State</i>	<i>Public Colleges</i>	<i>Private Colleges</i>	<i>Total Number of Colleges</i>
Texas	39	13	52
Utah	3	0	3
Vermont	1	4	5
Virginia	15	11	26
Washington	22	0	22
West Virginia	2	3	5
Wisconsin	20	2	22
Wyoming	6	0	6
			<u>908</u>

(This chart does not include 42 more two-year colleges which were to open in 1968. The 42 include the two-year college at Gallup, New Mexico, a branch of the University of New Mexico, and the college at Grants, a branch of New Mexico State University.)



## APPENDIX II

### GROWTH RATES OF TWO-YEAR COLLEGES\*

Total Growth 1961-67			
Year	Number of Colleges	Enrollment	% of Increase in Enrollment
1961	678	748,619	---
1962	704	818,869	9.38
1963	694	927,534	13.27
1964	719	1,043,963	12.55
1965	771	1,292,753	23.83
1966	837	1,464,099	13.25
1967	912	1,671,440	14.16

Public Junior College Growth 1961-67			
Year	Number of Colleges	Enrollment	% of Increase in Enrollment
1961	405	644,968	---
1962	426	713,334	10.59
1963	422	814,244	14.14
1964	452	921,093	13.12
1965	503	1,152,086	25.07
1966	565	1,316,980	14.31
1967	648	1,528,220	16.03

Projections for Enrollment All Two-Year Colleges 1968-1972 (Assumes constant annual increase of 12%)	
Year	Enrollment
1968	1,872,000
1969	2,097,000
1970	2,348,000
1971	2,629,000
1972	2,940,000

\*Taken from American Association of Junior Colleges, 1968 *Junior College Directory*.  
Washington: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1968, pp. 6-7.

# APPENDIX III

## TWO-YEAR COLLEGES IN NEW MEXICO\*

TWO-YEAR COLLEGES IN NEW MEXICO\*

College	University Branch	Tuition**	Enrollment Total/FTE	Budget***	Accreditation
Alamogordo Branch College	N.M. State University	\$336/yr	66-67 535/243 67-68 643/288 68-69 700/319	\$263,433	North Central Association
Artesia Branch Col.	-----	--- phased out	67-68 23/3 for lack of enrollment -----	\$ 2,393	-----
Carlsbad Community College	N.M. State University	\$226/yr	66-67 454/251 67-68 451/267 68-69 500/275	\$267,000	North Central Association
Clovis Community College	Eastern N.M. Univ.	\$12/sem hr	66-67 393/145 67-68 463/172 68-69 625/195	\$116,500	North Central Association
Gallup Branch Col.	University of New Mexico		68-69 165/74	\$58,800	
Grants Branch Col.	N.M. State University		68-69 150/74	\$72,100	
N.M. Jr. Col., Hobbs	Independent	\$36/sem 66-67 \$60/sem 67-68 \$60/sem 68-69	66-67 /471 67-68 /774 68-69 /826	\$3,097,721 \$1,855,564 \$2,410,449	North Central Association
New Mexico Military Inst.		\$1,500/yr			North Central Association
Roswell Branch College	Eastern N.M. Univ.	\$120/sem	66-67 /290 67-68 /509 68-69 /790	\$932,735	North Central Association
San Juan Branch Col., Farmington	N.M. State University		66-67 342/173 67-68 335/199 68-69 365/190	\$198,800	North Central Association
Tucumcari Extension Center	Eastern N.M. Univ.		66-67 70/34 67-68 78/38 68-69 94/48	\$20,000	North Central Association

\*The information under tuition and enrollment is incomplete because it is not available at this time.

\*\*The tuition figures available were taken from *Barron's Guide to the Two-Year College*. They may be out of date.

\*\*\*The budget figures are the 1968-69 expenditure figures. Expenditure amounts for the college in Hobbs, however, are shown for a three year period; capital outlay accounts for much of that expense.

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